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# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of *May*, 1774.

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ARTICLE I.

*A Political Survey of Britain: being a Series of Reflections on the Situation, Lands, Inhabitants, Revenues, Colonies, and Commerce of this Island. Intended to shew that we have not as yet approached near the Summit of Improvement, but that it will afford Employment to many Generations before they push to their utmost Extent the natural Advantages of Great Britain. By John Campbell, LL. D. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 2s. boards. Durham.*

**A**T last hath this respectable veteran in the republic of science determined upon gratifying the expectation of his subscribers and the public; at last hath he ventured to commit to the rude storms of criticism this darling production of his declining years; for which he bespeaks favour with a most engaging diffidence, and amiable confession of errors.—‘It is the favourite labour of his life, and he hopes that indulgence which upon other occasions he hath so frequently and gratefully experienced, will be likewise extended to this, and thereby render the evening of his day serene.’

When we consider the amazing variety of uninteresting topics necessarily comprehended in so general a plan, and the difficulty of uniting in one uniform mass such opposite and discordant materials, we are less surpris'd at defects than astonish'd with the talents which enable Dr. Campbell to engage attention through tiresome pages so devious and barren. Scarce had any former writer presumed to sketch so much as the outlines of a design equally laborious and extensive. Our best political compilers are short even in idea of what he has actually accomplished; the concentrating in one point of view every advantage of po-

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licity and industry, of nature and of art, with which Providence has enriched the British empire.

From our author's own words will best appear the extent and difficulty of an undertaking which many readers may conceive to be a weight too heavy for the shoulders of the most herculean individual.

' In the first book, says he, the basis of this work is established. In that an Enquiry hath been made as to the natural advantages from which some countries have been rendered fertile, and their inhabitants prosperous and potent, and into the causes why others have either never risen into such consequence, or have quickly declined. These principles being supported by facts, and from thence recommended to the reader's judgment, the natural prerogatives of these islands have been largely examined, their excellencies pointed out, confirmed by instances perfectly well known, and as occasion offered some new improvements suggested. If in respect to these we had been less explicit or not attentive in bringing proofs for every thing that is advanced, the remaining part of this performance would have been sometimes doubtful, and frequently obscure. But the reader being previously acquainted with these matters will be able to apply them without difficulty, so as to prevent the necessity of repetitions and digressions which might have embarrassed the subsequent subjects of which we treat. In this book all imaginable pains hath been taken to shew that all things essential to the welfare and grandeur of a people, the inhabitants of these islands have in their power; and that if their numbers should be greatly increased, which, considering the extent of our empire, is a thing much to be wished; there are no grounds to apprehend their want either of subsistence or employment. We have been particularly copious in respect to the less known or at least less considered dependencies on these islands, that by making their consequences appear they might be thought worthy of more notice for the future, and this the rather, because the bringing them into a closer connection with our two great islands would prevent the emigration of their inhabitants from necessity, and thereby increase the body of the nation by an accession of active and industrious subjects, which is a point of the highest political importance, and which, from a variety of circumstances, we have reason to think will appear more and more manifest every day.

' This broad foundation being thus laid, we have proceeded to a more minute inquiry into the extent of this country, and to render this more useful and satisfactory, to compare it with the other great states of Europe, in order to shew, that with the advantage of our insular situation, we have just grounds to presume, that by a prudent and steady management we may be able to sustain that wide expanded empire which Providence hath been pleased to bestow. A cursory discussion of the native commodities, the productions which skill and industry have drawn forth, and the means by which all these may be preserved and improved, became our next care. In treating these subjects we have been peculiarly attentive to the numerous helps and instruments that science, supported by public spirit, hath furnished, for promoting the skill and rewarding the toil of our people, so as to render their emoluments equivalent to their pains. The various states of this country in different periods have been brought to the reader's view, and their causes traced



traced through the different modes of government which in those different periods have prevailed. The gradual growth of our present excellent constitution hath been explained, or at least endeavoured to be explained, its beneficial consequences described, and the reasons shewn why we may hope it will continue for ages, and during its continuance be productive of the like good effects. This is chiefly founded in the rendering it evident that the happiness of the people is and must be its primary object, and that while they are true to their own interests, it must from thence remain unshaken and secure. In this difficult undertaking we have directed our course not by any preconceived political system of opinions, but by the evidence afforded us by facts, considering public blessings, and the flourishing state of the community as the essential and incontrovertible marks of a good government, and much more to be relied on than any speculative sentiments whatever.

‘As a very noble and shining instance of that prosperity which hath attended the full establishment of our free constitution, we have laboured to give a comprehensive, though a succinct account of our possessions, colonies, and settlements in all the different parts of the globe, and to shew how far they have contributed to the grandeur and opulence of the British empire. A subject in itself equally pleasing, entertaining, and instructive, as it proves the influence of commerce and maritime power, by which dominions so extensive and at so great a distance have been acquired and united to us by the ties of mutual interests and a reciprocal communication of benefits, whereas other great empires have been usually founded in violence, and the success of armies from whence they carried in themselves the seeds of their own destruction from the natural repugnance of human nature to a slavish subjection, from which the subjects of Britain wherever seated are free. This naturally leads to the consideration of our foreign commerce, the interior trade of the kingdom, and those different navigations which are, and must ever be, the support of our maritime power, as that is of our empire. These we have carefully endeavoured to render as plain, distinct, and obvious as possible, that it might clearly appear we have not over-rated either the advantages of our insular situation or their effects in securing to us all the benefits that can be derived from the different branches of traffic that human wisdom hath hitherto been able to devise. This is a concise account of what hath been attempted in a political survey of Britain: an attempt in which, on the plan here pursued, we had no guide, though many helps and informations, without which, whatever it may be, it could never have been performed, and for which, where it was in our power, and we were permitted, we have paid our grateful acknowledgments, and must rest all our hopes on the reader's candour, and the consideration of the numerous and great difficulties that necessarily lay in the way of an undertaking of such extent, and which, as might be easily shewn, was both altering and extending while in our hands.’

Our author's comparative view of the natural and artificial benefits of different countries, ancient and modern, consequent on the diversity of soil, situation, climate, and constitution, displays a most painful application to books, which, we doubt not, will afford to many readers both profit and entertainment.

For our part, however, we wish to have seen the result of profound study and meditation compressed in a compass more portable to the memory, and more decisive to the judgment.

The learned author sets out with observing, that the great object of true policy is, to render the society as happy as the situation and circumstances of it will allow. The attainment of this end, he remarks, is no very easy task, where many advantages seem to concur; yet is not impossible, even where these are in some measure wanting. These truths he proceeds to illustrate by examples drawn from ancient and modern history; and he first considers the constitution of ancient Egypt, and of China. After delivering a general account of the policy of those people, he takes a view of the political state of Spain, Italy, Switzerland, and the republic of Holland; pointing out the causes of their respective declension or prosperity. The author concludes this chapter with the following reflections.

‘ These descriptive histories, these assemblages of facts, lead us to the experimental knowledge of the principles of sound policy. They shew us, that natural advantages are in themselves of very little consequence, if not improved in a right method, and with assiduous application. Then indeed they come out with irresistible force, and, while thus directed, carry national power, and national happiness, as far as they can be carried. They shew us also, that there are advantages, of very different kinds, which certainly require a difference in direction, and yet not so great as might be imagined; for how dissimilar soever the faces of countries may be, the same, or very near the same principles, may be applied with good effect. They likewise make us sensible, that though natural advantages without a sound policy will do little, yet a wise and steady policy, where there are very few advantages, will avail much, and that, as in the body natural, so in the body politic, a right discipline will work even upon nature, and extract beneficial consequences from real inconveniences. But in all cases relaxations are dangerous, or not to mince the matter, and write below the truth, relaxations are destructive; and all these doctrines come to us with such a weight of evidence, that we cannot avoid seeing and acknowledging their truth.

‘ A government wisely constituted, so as to leave nothing wanting, either to necessary authority, or rational liberty; a succinct system of laws, easily understood, punctually executed, and calculated solely for the public good; regular manners in a nation, founded on solid principles, and directed to the promoting the common weal; an invariable regard to merit; an inflexible justice against crimes detrimental to the society: a genuine public spirit, rendered the characteristic of the people in private and in public transactions; industry made the sole basis of wealth; and service done to the state, the single road to titles and honour; splendour in whatever regards the public; piety, and true devotion, supported by purity of manners, and unostentatious charity, in all that regards religion; and a sober frugality, securing an equal and comfortable subsistence to the bulk of a contented people, is the way to render them peaceable and potent at home, respected  
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and beloved abroad, and safe from every danger while they keep out corruption. In such a state power would not be desired or declined; the public income would be regulated by the public interest; the administration would pique themselves on asking little; and the nation, knowing the source of its own felicity, would support the government at the expence of all.

There may be, and there certainly are, a kind of arts, (forgive me reader if I write the word at full length) a kind of artifices, by which the state of a nation may be disguised, and its ruin a little protracted; but of these my lord Bacon said truly, that, like strong cordials they may help at a pang, but they increase instead of eradicating the disease. The only rational and solid method of improving and exalting a nation, is to give them right notions of their own interests, and thereby engage them to pursue those interests with vigour: this will excite in them a desire to cultivate their country to the utmost, and to submit, for their own sakes, to such laws as have a visible and a real tendency to this end; this will prompt their rulers to enforce their laws, not only by a strict and severe execution, but by what will do the business more effectually, and with far less difficulty, by their own example. Ambition will not be extinguished, but it will change its views; and men of active spirits, instead of aiming at making themselves great in a declining and impoverished country, which is never desirable, and seldom possible, will exert those spirits in aggrandizing their country, and become great by consequence rather than by choice. There want not the materials in most countries; and certainly they are not wanting in this, to raise as strong, as lasting, and as beautiful, structures as any that we see in history, the true and genuine use of which is to inspire us with suitable inclinations, and, in the first place, to furnish us with lights requisite to exhibit a proper plan.

The second chapter begins with the proposition, that situation furnishes the greatest facility, or proves the greatest obstacle to the improvement of any country. This the author exemplifies in the case of the Tartars, the interior nations of Africa, the savages of America, the Russians, ancient Arabia, Phœnicia, and Carthage.

The third chapter commences with the remark, that an insular situation is preferable to all others. In support of this assertion, the author delivers a succinct history of ancient Crete and Tyre, which is followed by that of the island and republic of Rhodes. As further instances of the truth of his observation, he afterwards produces Malta, Corfu, the republic of Venice, and other islands. That our readers may be furnished with a specimen of the manner in which the author treats of these subjects, we shall submit to their perusal an extract from the beginning of the chapter last mentioned.

An insular situation, amongst those recommended by the ablest and most capable judges, has been represented as preferable to any, as enjoying some benefits inseparably peculiar thereto, and being at the same time free from many inconveniencies to which countries seated on the continent are, from that very situation, necessarily exposed. The soil of islands, more especially if of any great

extent is commonly rich and fertile, and the climate rather milder than, under the same parallel of latitude, upon the main land. The sea being the safest and most natural boundary, affords the inhabitants great security in settling, cultivating, and improving their country; and a good government being once established, the inhabitants of an island must, for these reasons, thrive quicker than their neighbours, and, being naturally prone to navigation, supply their wants, export their own commodities, establish an extensive communication with the countries round them, and thereby attain an influence over their neighbours, strengthen themselves at home, augment their riches by trade, and, in consequence of that naval power, of which commerce only is the natural basis, commonly enjoy a greater proportion of freedom, affluence, and grandeur, than can well be attained, or, if attained, be for any length of time preserved, by inhabitants of countries of the same extent on the continent. As these are points of fact, they are best established from history; and the reader, when he carefully reflects on those instances that may and shall be produced from thence, will find himself much better enabled, than by any other method he could have been, to judge of the propriety of the reasons and remarks that will occur in a particular application. Besides, he will also see, and be convinced, that many things which he might have otherwise mistaken for the bold flights of a luxuriant fancy, or the chimerical and delusive inventions of a fertile imagination, are really sober and solid truths, suggested from the writings of men of sound judgment, and which may, at any time, in any like place, be certainly reduced to practice, because the light of experience shews us that they have been actually practised already. A manner of writing in respect to the utility of which we may cite the authority of the celebrated John de Witt, than whom, in things of this nature, a better cannot be mentioned, whether ancient or modern.

The most ancient maritime power, recorded by the Greek historians, is that of Crete; and indeed they could not well go higher, since this is one of the first facts in what ought to be stiled credible history. For Minos, king of Crete, son of Jupiter and Europa, observing that the subjects of all the little principalities of Greece, as well as the inhabitants of the islands in the Archipelago, perverted the very use of navigation in committing piracies upon each other, having first reduced the whole island he governed into order, and established so complete a system of laws, that the wisest men have thought them worthy of perpetual memory, he began to assume the dominion of the sea; and having a superior naval force, employed it in suppressing pirates, and establishing a free and open trade, which is the most stable basis of maritime empire. Crete, in the situation that things then were, was the most natural seat of such an empire, enjoying a happy, temperate, or rather warm climate, at the distance of about thirty leagues from Peloponnesus, about the like distance from lesser Asia, and not above fifty leagues from Africa, from whence it is celebrated by Virgil as lying in the middle of the sea. It may be stiled considerable in point of size, being about six hundred miles in circumference, and yet not a twentieth part so large as Great Britain: exceedingly fruitful in rich and staple commodities, such as silk, wine, oil, honey, wax, the finest fruits, many valuable gums, and other drugs of price, and not deficient in wool, corn, and other necessaries; abounding, for those early times, with capacious and commodious ports, and

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inhabited by a sensible and warlike people. After the death of Minos, they established a republican government, retaining however their old laws, and improving their wealth and power to such a degree, as to acquire their country the epithet of Hecatompolis, from its having no fewer than a hundred well built and populous cities, retaining its liberty, and with it that prerogative, from whence Aristotle styles this island the empress of the sea, upwards of thirteen hundred years; and at length overwhelmed, after a glorious struggle, by the all grasping power of the Romans, who, as Florus truly acknowledges, had no better title, or rather could devise no fairer pretence to make this conquest, than the desire of being possessed of so noble an island; as the only method to secure which, they most barbarously exterminated the far greatest part of its ancient inhabitants.

‘ It may seem not a little strange, that the Cretans being confined within such very narrow bounds, and having in process of time so many powerful princes and states in their neighbourhood, should nevertheless maintain their wealth, their commerce, and their superiority at sea, for such a length of time, and this, notwithstanding the great corruption of their manners, their frequent civil wars, and their interfering too much with the affairs of the continent, which in the end however proved their ruin: but it will appear much more strange, that a people inhabiting an island, which contained fewer square yards than Crete did miles, should still make a greater figure at sea than the people of Crete; should oppose themselves with more firmness than even the great king, as the Greeks styled the monarch of Persia, against the Macedonian conqueror; stop the progress of his arms longer, and render the dispute between them more doubtful than with any of the other nations, whom, in the rapid course of his victories, he subdued. Yet for this we have all the evidence that the nature of so extraordinary a fact can demand, an evidence so clear and irresistible, that, strange as the fact is, the truth of it has never been called in question.

‘ These were the Tyrians, who, after their old city, built upon the coast of Phœnicia, had been sacked and destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, retired to an island less than two miles distant, and not full three in compass, where they settled themselves, and, in the space of seventy years, so far recovered their former grandeur as to erect a city, which had indeed precisely the same bounds with the island, compleatly fortified, having a spacious port in the bay, between them and the continent, adorned with elegant buildings many stories in height, the want of earth obliging them to trespass on the air, and enriched with immense magazines of every kind of merchandize that either the eastern or the western world could furnish. They were sometimes governed by judges, afterwards by kings, who paid a kind of tribute or acknowledgment to the Persian monarch, but, after all, were rather respected as allies, than treated as subjects. This was owing to the superiority of their maritime power, and their close connection with the Carthaginians, a colony of their own, and the many services which they rendered to those great kings, and in which also they found their own account. This situation was so agreeable to them, and the conjunction of their interests united them so effectually to the Persians, that, in their quarrel, they stood a siege of no less than seven months against Alexander the Great, whose fortune had been here put to a stand, if his military skill had not suggested to him the means

of depriving them of the great source of their strength, their situation; through the construction of an artificial isthmus, by which, with incredible labour, and with no small loss, after many months arduous endeavour, he rendered himself master of the place; and having slaughtered thousands, crucified thousands, and sold thirty thousand for slaves, his fury at length relenting, he suffered it to be again peopled; and, in the space of twenty years, such was the spirit and industry, such the genius and the resources of this trading people, that it was become again a wealthy and potent city, capable of holding out a much longer siege against one of his successors. In succeeding times, converting even their misfortunes into benefits, they united both the old and the new towns into one city, and, by the addition of some farther works, procured two good havens on the different sides of the isthmus. They met with favour and indulgence from the Romans, who paid a very high respect to all cities eminent for commerce, and distinguished them by the name of *Navarchides*, and continued, through a steady perseverance, in the improvement of those arts, by which they rose; to make a great figure till towards the close of the thirteenth century, when they fell under the dominion of their present masters, the Turks, who compleated that destruction with which they were threatened so long before by the prophets; so that there are nothing now remaining of both cities but dust and rubbish, to attest, as they do in the strongest and most convincing manner, all the extraordinary events that are recorded in history for such a series of years, and which sufficiently demonstrate, that industry, commerce, and naval power, are the natural pillars of a lasting, equal, and temperate government; which, though under different forms, they all along possessed, and the loss of which has reduced this island to what it now is, a confused heap of shattered remains of ancient magnificence, without any inhabitants save a few fishermen, whom the conveniency of its coasts incline to lodge in these squalid ruins.'

In the fourth chapter, Dr. Campbell enters on the survey of Great Britain, which he introduces with some pertinent remarks on the love of our country. After delineating the situation and extent of the British islands, he considers the climate, which, notwithstanding its great variations and vicissitudes, he pronounces upon the whole to be both temperate and wholesome; and he supports this assertion by appealing to numerous instances of the longevity of the inhabitants, the fecundity of the women, the corporal endowments of the people in general, and the many excellent geniuses that have arisen among them; a circumstance which has often been attributed to the influence of climate.

The author afterwards enumerates several advantages resulting from the variable state of our climate, the chief of which is the hardiness of the inhabitants, above those who live in climates that are warmer and more serene. Having treated largely of this subject, he proceeds to consider the nature of the British soil, which he observes is as fruitful as the clime is temperate; producing roots, plants, herbs, fruit and timber-trees,



trees, in great abundance, with esculent animals of various kinds; yet more happy in its capacity of improvement, than in its actual fertility. In prosecuting his enquiries, the author observes, that the geographical distinction of climates ought to be received with caution, as places situated in the same latitude may differ in every other respect. This remark he illustrates by taking a view of the climate of Moscow, with the situation of Stockholm and Copenhagen.

In the fifth chapter, the author displays the peculiar felicity of Great Britain, in a copious distribution of excellent water, while, notwithstanding this advantage, it is little exposed to inundations. Our rains, he observes, are purer, and more impregnated with salts than in other countries, on account of our insular situation. He then mentions the opinions of philosophers respecting the origin of springs, which so much abound in Great Britain, and the various properties of which evince a great variety in our soil; concluding with an account of our medicinal and mineral waters, fountains, meers, and lakes.

In the sixth chapter, the doctor takes a view of the navigable rivers, which he observes are the measure of national grandeur and opulence. He draws a parallel in this respect between four great rivers in France and England, contrasting the Trent, the Tine, the Ouse, and the Thames, with the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. He then delivers a concise account of the six great rivers in Spain, with that of such English rivers and ports, as, in point of improvement, navigation, and commerce, may be opposed to them. This subject is succeeded by a like detail of the remainder of the rivers and harbours in the west and south coasts of the island, with those in North Britain, and Ireland. The view which the author has exhibited in this chapter of the French and Spanish rivers, may be considered by some readers as foreign to his subject; but serving as objects of comparison with the British rivers, they are, in our opinion, properly introduced, and this judicious writer never makes any excursion to the continent, in the course of his work, without bringing home some useful observation.

In the seventh chapter our author considers the various advantages arising to the British dominions, from the large extent and peculiar figure of their coasts; on which subject, after treating largely, he takes a view of the principal ports on the east side of South Britain, delivering at the same time their history, with occasional observations on their conveniencies and defects.

The author proceeds to treat in the same manner of the west and south coasts of this part of the island, with the inlets, ports, and harbours in North Britain, pointing out the improvements of which they are capable from their situation. The coasts of Ireland are here likewise surveyed with the same attentive and judicious observation.

In the eighth chapter, Dr. Campbell treats of the several islands surrounding Great Britain, of which he shews the capacity, and points out the expediency of improvement. He first presents us with an account of the Isle of Wight; delivering a succinct history of it from the most ancient times, and describing its climate, soil, and produce. He then exhibits a comparative view of it with respect to some other islands, and proposes the means of its farther improvement. These being of a nature particularly interesting to the public, we shall make no apology for extracting what is said on this head.

\* Though there are so many raw materials, yet there are but few manufactures in this island. It does not appear, that, except worsted, there is any thing wrought out of their excellent wool, which might be all employed in the slight stuffs and thin cloths that are the supports of the French looms, if a small encouragement were given to those who are expert in these trades to come over and settle in this island. There are a few tanners, and a currier, but the making several sorts of leather is not yet introduced, tho' there is room for it. There is a most valuable and beautiful white sand in Freshwater Isle, near the Needles, upon the estate of David Urry esq. of which considerable quantities are sent annually to Bristol and Liverpool. There was formerly a manufacture of glass at Cowes, but it has been long ago discontinued. The loss of these, and the incapacity of setting up any new manufacture, is chiefly owing to the dearth and defect of firing, more especially of late years. It was this in all probability that obliged the inhabitants to discontinue the baking their own flour into biscuit, and brewing their own malt into beer, for the use of the navy, which was formerly practised here. We have the concurring authority of several eminent writers, that there was a very fine sort of tobacco-pipe clay, called Hayter's clay in this island, but now what is used for making pipes they bring from Pool. But we will pass from these to another manufacture which they have also lost, and not through that defect which has been specified; which manufacture may be certainly and easily retrieved, and, if retrieved, would undoubtedly make way for many more, increase the number of inhabitants, and give a new turn to their endeavours.

\* The manufacture that I mean is bay salt, which, as I have been informed, was once actually made at Hampstead in this island; and there can be no reason assigned why it should not be made there as well as on the coasts of Brittany. The situation of the island for salt ponds is more favourable. They might be constructed and managed with the utmost facility. The stone properest for flooring and lining these ponds is carried from this island to distant places, and would doubtless answer full as well here. Besides, the salt being produced in these ponds in the summer only, they might be used for keeping sea fish, as is practised and turns

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to profit elsewhere, for at least six months in the year. In consequence of this manufacture there would probably arise a fishery, which would be a further advantage; for though the sea abounds with the best sorts of fish on all sides, no use has been made of this great blessing, but for immediate consumption, by the inhabitants. At all events, the producing bay-salt would create a new branch of exportation; and, by exhibiting the advantages that accrue from industry, happily exerted, and the benefits that may result by a strict attention to the natural prerogatives of the isle, give the people a greater spirit than they have hitherto shewn in making those improvements for which they have such singular and extraordinary conveniencies, and which would turn equally to their private and particular emolument, as inhabitants of Wight, and to the public interest, as at the same time they would not at all lessen the benefits they already derive from their native commodities. But all things must have a beginning, and, in all attempts of this nature, a right beginning is of the utmost consequence; and such, on a mature consideration of all circumstances, this appears to be, which is the sole reason for stating it so much at large, and insisting upon it so copiously.

In regard to navigation and commerce, West Cowes, which is a member of Southampton, is properly speaking the port of the Isle of Wight; having under its jurisdiction the havens of Yarmouth and Newport, as Creeks. Cowes is in this respect very commodious, and a great resort there is thither of ships outward and homeward bound, and in time of war, of foreign ships, as well as our own. For this reason there is a customhouse, and a competent establishment for officers employed in making the proper entries and collecting the duties. This resort however is chiefly owing to its happy situation, in respect to vessels proceeding to or returning from distant parts, and has little to do with the inhabitants of Wight, who, except sending, when markets are favourable, pretty large quantities of corn to Spain and Portugal, cannot boast of much foreign commerce, for which, nevertheless, they are admirably seated, and, if manufactures were once introduced, would very soon grow considerable, and see those towns which are now declining, a sure sign that something is wanting, rise again into credit, and resume their ancient splendor. For Cowes, from the causes before-mentioned, is the best built and most flourishing place, though no borough, in this isle; and surely the same causes would produce the same effects elsewhere. In the coasting trade, according to the best account I could obtain, there may be employed in the whole about fourscore vessels of all sizes.

In order to accelerate all these improvements, of which this beautiful, fruitful, and well-seated country is certainly capable, let me be permitted to give a few further hints, which, though they may pass unregarded for the present, may possibly meet with a better reception from posterity, which is the common fate of such pieces of advice. The whole island is wonderfully pleasant; but if any mineral water could be discovered in the vicinity of some well-situated village, where proper conveniencies were provided for strangers, under such regulations, as to prevent avarice from proving prejudicial to the public interest, it could not fail, wherever these circumstances concurred, of producing numerous advantages. But here something is left to chance. I will mention another case, where there is nothing. There is no place where bathing in the sea could be rendered more commodious than in almost

most every town in the island ; and, considering the many charming prospects, agreeable walks, and delightful rides, that might be contrived, and the facility of having recourse to a medicine, not inferior to sea-water, that is, making short trips at sea, which efficacious exercise, and the salubrious change of air attending it, has been found beneficial even in the most desperate cases ; these circumstances combined, would quickly render this the finest retreat for valetudinary persons in the south of England. In consequence of a concourse of people at regular seasons, many improvements, now not so much as in conception, would, as from the like cause has been experienced in other places, be speedily and certainly made. The circulation of money would by the same means be increased, and industry also of necessity encouraged, over the whole isle. Add to this, that it would afford the most natural support to a new manufacture in stuff or cloth, and strongly conduce to the making it generally known, and bringing it into credit. Besides, it would contribute to stop the humour of going to Montpelier, Lisbon, and Naples, and save vast sums unnecessarily spent in such excursions.

‘ In the middle of the isle an academy might be very commodiously erected, for teaching the modern languages, and all the sciences requisite to qualify youth for the service of the navy. They would here be more retired, and consequently better disposed to follow their studies ; and yet near enough the fleet to complete their education by practical instructions, when so far versed in theory as to understand them thoroughly. Competent salaries to the professors, strict regulations in regard to their granting certificates to their pupils of their capacity, when sent upon actual service, and a due respect paid to those certificates, if supported by proper behaviour, in accelerating the promotion of young seamen thus educated, would produce many good effects, at a small expence to the public. How much such an institution upon a broad foundation is wanted, what mighty advantages have accrued to seamen from their having a just tincture of letters, and what mischiefs flow from deficiencies in this respect, may be learned from the writings of the best judges ; men versed in naval affairs, and who had a sincere and hearty zeal for the honour and prosperity of their country.

Another thing that would contribute exceedingly to render this isle more populous and more considerable, would be the making one of its ports fit for the reception of part of the small-armed vessels that belong to the royal navy, and laying up there the stores, artillery, and other furniture, when not employed. I am aware of some objections that may be made to this ; but instead of stating and answering these, I shall only observe, that none can be urged more strongly against it, than those that were formerly alleged against employing, in the same manner, but with respect to larger vessels, the opposite isle called Portsea. As therefore the superior excellency of the haven of Portsmouth very justly overcame these, and has been productive of many benefits, why may we not, in a proportionable degree, expect that the same would follow here ? There might indeed be some expence in the first fixing these establishments ; but this would be in reality no more than a temporary change in the circulation, and would possibly little, if at all, exceed the additional annual income from custom and excise, which, in the space of a few years, these improvements, by augmenting the number of inhabitants, and enlarging their connections, correspondence, and commerce, would produce.

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‘ Upon this occasion I will take the opportunity of avowing, that I make the less scruple of recommending such expences as these to the public, because the public is certainly and solely to reap all the benefits that shall arise from them, and this in a sensible and honourable way, by taking the proper measures to accomplish the proposed end, and not by accident, or without foresight. There are arts, or more properly tricks, by which the revenue may be raised, by the subject's being allowed to spend, without being enabled to get; whereas sound policy increases the public income, by encouraging private industry, multiplying manufactures, and augmenting the number of people.’

From the Isle of Wight the author proceeds to the Scilly islands, anciently known by the name of the Cassiterides, or the tin isles, and which were places of great trade in remote ages. These islands, he observes, are at present of very little use to Great Britain, yielding scarce any return to the public for the expence of their protection; but by the means he proposes, every habitable island of this cluster might be improved, the number of inhabitants increased, and beneficial industry introduced among them. Directing his course from these islands, the political observer arrives at the ancient Mona, or Anglesey, which he surveys with his usual judgment and attention; after which he passes to those islands that were anciently dependent on Normandy; viz. Guernsey, Alderney, Sark, and Jersey, treating of these in the same manner. Departing thence he delivers an equally copious account of the Island of Man, with the improvements of which it is capable. He then proceeds to the Hebrides, or Western Isles, dependent on North Britain.

We shall suspend the further account of this valuable work till our next Review. In the mean time, we cannot refrain from observing, that Dr. Campbell discovers in this great Political Survey, a most extensive knowledge of the commercial situation of the various parts of the British empire. The improvements which he suggests are founded on the clearest principles of national benefit; and if any of his projects should appear too vast to be adopted, they at least evince the greatness of the author's conceptions respecting the advancement of domestic polity. The subject to which we allude is, the proposal of making a canal between the east and west coasts, in the north of Scotland. In such a work as that now before us, it is much more commendable in the author to propose useful, though arduous schemes for promoting the grandeur and opulence of the nation, than to restrict his suggestions within the narrow limits of a supine and parsimonious œconomy. In general, the means of improvement which he advises are no less practicable than extremely judicious; and the political interest of Great Britain induces

us to entertain a desire, nor is it unattended with expectation, that many of them, either with the assistance of government, or by the efforts of public spirited individuals, will be carried into execution with success.

[ *To be continued.* ]

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II. *A Philosophical Analysis and Illustration of some of Shakespeare's remarkable Characters.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. boards. Murray.

**A**S dramatic poetry contains a representation of the sentiments and conduct of mankind in various situations, when carefully copied from nature it affords the most complete and striking picture of the human mind that can possibly be delineated. Here we view the passions lurking in their most secret recesses; we discover by what objects they are stimulated or repressed; we behold their combinations, or mutual conflicts, and trace their progress from the first dawn of emotion to the period of their meridian fervour. Whoever, therefore, would investigate the nature and principles of the heart, cannot accomplish his design with more success than by studying the various characters as they are faithfully exhibited by the eminent masters in the drama. Among these our immortal Shakespeare is the most distinguished for his knowledge of human nature; and the portraits which he has drawn will always continue to be admired for their justness and originality.

The author of the treatise before us professes, that his intention is to make poetry subservient to philosophy, and to employ it in tracing the principles of human conduct. These purposes, in our opinion, he has fulfilled with ingenuity and discernment. With how much judgment he has entered on this arduous undertaking will best appear by selecting a few passages from the Introduction, which abounds with excellent observations on the study and nature of the human mind.

‘ The study of human nature has been often and variously recommended. “ Know thyself,” was a precept so highly esteemed by the venerable sages of antiquity, that they ascribed it to the Delphian oracle. By reducing it to practice, we learn the dignity of human nature; our emulation is excited by contemplating our divine original: and, by discovering the capacity and extent of our faculties, we become desirous of higher improvement. Nor would the practice of this apophthegm enable us merely to elevate and enlarge our desires, but also, to purify and refine them; to withstand the solicitations of groveling appetites, and subdue their violence: for improvement in virtue consists in duly regulating our inferior appetites, no less than in cultivating the principles of benevolence and magnanimity. Numerous, however, are the desires, and various are the passions that agitate the human heart. Every individual is actuated by feelings peculiar to himself, insensible even



even of their existence; of their precise force and tendency often ignorant. But, to prevent the inroads of vice, and preserve our minds free from the tyranny of lawless passions, vigilance must be exerted where we are weakest and most exposed. We must therefore be attentive to the state and constitution of our own minds; we must discover to what habits we are most addicted, and of what propensities we ought chiefly to beware: we must deliberate with ourselves on what resources we can most assuredly depend, and what motives are best calculated to repel the invader. Now, the study of human nature, accustoming us to turn our attention inwards, and reflect on the various propensities and inclinations of the heart, facilitates self-examination, and renders it habitual.

After mentioning the pleasure which the study of pneumatology is likewise capable of affording, the author proceeds to relate the causes of the slow advancement of our knowledge respecting this subject.

‘Observations made, while the mind is inflamed, are difficult in the execution, incomplete, and erroneous. Eager passions admit no partners, and endure no rivals in their authority. The moment reflection, or any foreign or opposing principle, begins to operate, they are either exceedingly exasperated, agitating the mind, and leaving it no leisure for speculation; or, if they are unable to maintain their ascendant, they become cool and indistinct; their aspect grows dim; and observations made during their decline are imperfect. The passions are swift and evanescent: we cannot arrest their celerity, nor suspend them in the mind during pleasure. You are moved by strong affection: seize the opportunity, let none of its motions escape you, and observe every sentiment it excites. You cannot. While the passion prevails, you have no leisure for speculation; and be assured it hath suffered abatement, if you have time to philosophize.

‘But you proceed by recollection. Still, however, your observations are limited, and your theory partial. To be acquainted with the nature of any passion, we must know by what combination of feelings it is excited; to what temperament it is allied; in what proportion it gathers force and swiftness; what propensities, and what associations of ideas either retard or accelerate its impetuosity; and how it may be opposed, weakened, or suppressed. But, if these circumstances escape the most vigilant and abstracted attention, when the mind is actually agitated, how can they be recollected when the passion is entirely quieted? Moreover, every passion is compounded of inferior and subordinate feelings, essential to its existence, in their own nature nicely and minutely varied, but whose different shades and gradations are difficult to be discerned. To these we must be acutely attentive; to mark how they are combined, blended, or opposed; how they are suddenly extinguished, in a moment renewed, and again extinguished. But these fleet volatile feelings, perceived only when the mind is affected, elude the most dexterous and active memory. Add to this, that an idea of memory is ever fainter and less distinct than an actual perception, especially if the idea to be renewed is of a spiritual nature, a thought, sentiment, or internal sensation.

‘Even allowing the possibility of accurate observation, our theories will continue partial and inadequate. We have only one view of the subject, and know not what aspects it may assume, or what powers it may possess in the constitution of another. No principle hath

hath been more variously treated, nor hath given rise to a greater number of systems, than that by which we are denominated moral agents, and determine the merit or demerit of human actions. But this can proceed from no other cause than the diversity of our feelings, and the necessity we are under of measuring the dispositions of others by our own. Even this moral principle, though a competent judge of the virtue and propriety of human actions, is apt to mislead us in our enquiries concerning the structure and dispositions of the mind. Desirous of avoiding the rebuke of this severe and vigilant censor, we are ready to extenuate every blameable quality, and magnify what we approve.'

The character of which the author first treats is that of Macbeth. Here he observes, that the mind, in different situations and circumstances, undergoes very extraordinary changes; and these he explains by considering the nature of the predominant passion, exemplifying his remarks by the character of Macbeth as delineated by Shakespeare. We shall make no apology for laying before our readers the following passage, where the author gives an ingenious solution of the manner in which a benevolent disposition may be rendered in human.

'Whoever possesses high ideas of the rights of mankind, of the sanctity of friendship, and of the duty we owe to legal authority; whoever with these possesses a heart susceptible of tenderness and of compassion, will have a higher sense of injury and injustice than men of colder complexions, and less strongly impressed with the importance of social duties. Therefore, if a man of uncommon sensibility, adorned with amiable and beneficent dispositions, misled by some pernicious appetite, commits acts of cruelty and oppression, he will be more apt, by reflecting on his own conduct, to conceive the resentment and indignation it excites, than men of a different temper. Reflecting on the compassion and resentment that would have arisen in his own mind, on the view of crimes similar to those he has himself perpetrated, he becomes afraid of the punishment he would himself have inflicted. Thus instigated by his fears, and, imagining himself universally hated, he conceives a sentiment of universal hatred: and, as his fears are exactly proportioned to his feelings and sensibility, so are his hatred and malevolence. In like manner, a man of no sensibility, of little beneficence, and possessing no high idea of social obligation, carried by his avarice or his ambition to commit acts of injustice, and having no lively conceptions, from his own feelings, of the resentment he has excited, will, consequently, be less afraid of mankind, and, of course, less violent in his hatred. It follows, that, in the circumstances of having procured undue possessions by inhuman means, and of desiring to preserve them, men of innate sensibility will be more cruel and sanguinary, than men naturally severe, rugged, and insensible. May not these observations unravel a seeming difficulty in the histories of Sylla, and Augustus, of Nero, and of Herod? Sylla and Augustus, naturally inhuman, having attained the summit of their desires, had no imaginary apprehensions of punishment, and ended their days in peace. Nero and Herod, naturally of soft and amiable dispositions, betrayed by unruly passions, committed acts of cruelty, were conscious of their crimes, dreaded the resentment



ment they deserved, and, in order to avoid it, became infamous and inhuman. By considering Sylla and Augustus in this light, some extraordinary circumstances in their conduct, much celebrated by some modern writers, namely the resignation of the dictatorship by the one, and the apparent clemency of the other, after he arose to the imperial dignity, seem divested of their merit; and, without having recourse to moderate or magnanimous sentiments, may easily be explained, as being perfectly consonant to the general tone of their characters. Sylla resigned the dictatorship, without any dread of suffering punishment for his antecedent cruelties, not because he had extirpated all those he had injured, but because his sensibility and his power of discerning moral excellence being originally languid, he felt no abhorrence of his own ferocity; and therefore, as incapable, as a blind man is of distinguishing colours, of conceiving how any but real sufferers should feel or resent his barbarity, he was incapable of apprehension. Augustus, naturally of an unfeeling temper, committed inhuman actions in pursuing the honours he aspired to, and having established his authority as absolutely and as independently as he wished for, he had no sense of his former inhumanity, had no regret for the past, and no fear of the future. Reasoning on the same principles, we may easily reconcile some appearances of benignity and tender affection in the conduct of Nero and of Herod, to their natural and original dispositions. That, in the early part of their lives, they discovered gentle and benign affections, is unquestioned. But, their subsequent cruelties, and, particularly, those related by ecclesiastical writers, have led men, indignant of their crimes, to pronounce them, in the very structure and constitution of their minds, monstrous and inhuman. Thus, from excessive resentment and indignation, we lessen the enormity of their guilt, charging that ferocity upon nature, which was the effect of their own impetuous and ungoverned passions. Sensibility is in itself amiable, and disposes us to benevolence: but, in corrupted minds, by infusing terror, it produces hatred and inhumanity. So dangerous is the dominion of vice, that being established in the mind, it bends to its baneful purposes even the principles of virtue.

The next character is that of Hamlet, which the author analyses and illustrates at great length; examining the various principles of action that govern this hero in different circumstances, and concluding with a general view of his character. We would present our readers with several passages from the observations on this subject; but as they include many speeches in the tragedy, we shall content ourselves with the following quotation.

‘It is a property of the imagination, when governed by any passion or opinion, to follow the impulse it has received, and to diminish or aggrandize any object not perfectly known to us, according to the judgment we may have formed of it. Under the influence of fear, men, tainted with superstition, people darkness and the night with spectres, and terrify and torment themselves with imaginary danger. If we are threatened with any unusual calamity, the nature and extent of which is unknown to us, governed by our terrors, we render its stature gigantic: but, if ac-

tuated by an intrepid spirit, we brave and undervalue it; approaching to temerity and overweening confidence, we are apt to lessen it beyond its real size. If a man of plausible manners, dextrous in displaying his genius and understanding, secures your esteem, and an opinion of his being endowed with uncommon abilities, you set no limits to his capacity, and, imagining him wiser and more ingenious than he really is, you are almost led to revere him. To explain the cause of these appearances is difficult: yet a conjecture may be hazarded. If we think attentively on any subject, a number of ideas arise in our minds concerning it. These ideas are of qualities and properties that may belong to it, or of the relations it may have to other objects, but of which we have no actual evidence. Yet, if we cannot negatively affirm that they do not belong to it; on the contrary, if they are agreeable to its nature and circumstances, their spontaneous appearance in our minds, as connected with it, affords a presumption that they really exist. Our belief, though not absolutely confirmed, is yet swayed by a plausible probability; and what strengthens it still the more, is a reflection on the narrowness of our powers, and the imperfection of our senses. We reason from analogy, and think it impossible that an object should be so completely known to us, as that we can pronounce with certainty that we are intimately acquainted with the whole of its structure; and that qualities agreeing perfectly with its nature do not reside in it, merely because we do not discern them. As we are naturally prone to action, a state of dubiety and suspense is ever accompanied with uneasiness; we bear uncertainty with reluctance; we must be resolved; and if we cannot prove a negative, even a slight probability will influence our belief. Therefore, since ideas of corresponding qualities and relations do arise, and engage the attention of our judging faculty, we seldom hesitate, but ascribe them immediately to the cause or object of our emotion. According to the vivacity of the idea, will be the energy of its impression; and, according to the force of the impression, will be our eagerness to decide. But the vivacity of the idea depends on the strength of the exciting passion; therefore, proportioned to the vehemence of the passions will be our credulity and proneness to be convinced. It is also manifest, that, if any object is naturally difficult to be apprehended, and is so complex or delicate, as to elude the acuteness of our discernment, or the intenseness of our inquiry, we shall be more liable to error in cases of this nature, than in those things that we perceive distinctly. Admiring the man of abilities, we cannot define with accuracy the precise boundaries of his genius; our imagination give him energies additional to those he exhibits; and it is agreeable to our opinion of his endowments, and consonant to our present temper to believe him more eminent than he really is. We are apt to judge in the same manner of the qualities of the heart. To the man who amazes us by some feat of personal bravery, we ascribe every heroic virtue, though he may have never displayed them: and we pronounce liberal, generous, and disinterested, the man who surprises us by some unexpected beneficence. On the same principles, those who excite our indignation by their ungrateful or inhuman conduct, are supposed to have trampled on every moral obligation; and we load them not only with the infamy of the crime they have committed, but with that of the crimes of which we believe them capable. The size and colour, so to express myself, of the imaginary qualities in this manner attributed to any object will



will correspond exactly to the violence of the present emotion, or the obstinacy of our opinion. If our sense of virtue is exceedingly delicate, our indignation and abhorrence of vice will be of proportioned vehemence; and, according to their vehemence will be the atrocity of the indefinite imaginary qualities ascribed to the object of our abhorrence. If those whose conduct we censure or lament were formerly esteemed by us, surprize and sorrow for our disappointment, and indignation at a change so unexpected, will augment the violence of our emotion, and so magnify their offences. Hence friendship, changed by neglect or ingratitude into indifference, grows into a hatred, of all others the most virulent and full of rancour.

That of the melancholy Jaques, in *As You Like It*, is the character afterwards examined. In analysing this portrait also, the author enters into ingenious investigations of the principles of the human mind, from whence he deduces moral inferences of great importance.

In the fourth and last section, the author illustrates the character of Imogen with acuteness of observation. We shall lay before our readers the conclusion of this article, the subject of which is, the Origin of Despair in the human Mind.

'Happiness depends upon the gratification of our desires and passions. The happiness of Titus arose from the indulgence of a beneficent temper: Epaminondas reaped enjoyment from the love of his country. The love of fame was the source of Cæsar's felicity: and the gratification of grovelling appetites gave delight to Vitellius. It has also been observed, that some one passion generally assumes a pre-eminence in the mind, and not only predominates over other appetites and desires; but contends with reason, and is often victorious. In proportion as one passion gains strength, the rest languish and are enfeebled. They are seldom exercised; their gratifications yield transient pleasure; they become of slight importance, are dispirited, and decay. Thus our happiness is attached to one ruling and ardent passion. But our reasonings, concerning future events, are weak and short-sighted. We form schemes of felicity that can never be realized, and cherish affections that can never be gratified. If, therefore, the disappointed passion has been long encouraged, if the gay visions of hope and imagination have long administered to its violence, if it is confirmed by habit in the temper and constitution, if it has superseded the operations of other active principles, and so enervated their strength, its disappointment will be embittered; and sorrow, prevented by no other passion, will prey, unabating, on the desolate abandoned spirit. We may also observe, that none are more liable to afflictions of this sort, than those to whom nature hath given extreme sensibility. Alive to every impression, their feelings are exquisite: they are eager in every pursuit: their imaginations are vigorous, and well adapted to fire them. They live, for a time, in a state of anarchy, exposed to the inroads of every passion; and, though possessed of singular abilities, their conduct will be capricious. Glowing with the warmest affections, open, generous, and candid; yet, prone to inconsistency, they are incapable of lasting

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friendship. At length, by force of repeated indulgence, some one passion becomes habitual, occupies the heart, seizes the understanding, and, impatient of resistance or controul, weakens or extirpates every opposing principle: disappointment ensues: no passion remains to administer comfort: and the original sensibility which promoted this disposition, will render the mind more susceptible of anguish, and yield it a prey to despondency. We ought, therefore, to beware of limiting our felicity to the gratification of any individual passion. Nature, ever wise and provident, hath endow'd us with capacities for various pleasures, and hath opened to us many fountains of happiness: "Let no tyrannous passion, let no rigid doctrine deter thee; drink of the streams, be moderate, and be grateful."

From the whole of this volume it evidently appears, that Mr. Richardson is an accurate observer of the secret springs which direct the emotions of the human heart. The work discovers both philosophical penetration and good taste; and while it lays open the most secret sources of the passions, it also inculcates many useful precepts tending to moderate their excess.

III. *The History of English Poetry, from the Close of the Eleventh to the Commencement of the Eighteenth Century. To which are prefixed, Two Dissertations. I. On the Origin of Romantic Fiction in Europe. II. On the Introduction of Learning into England. Vol. I. By Thomas Warton, B. D. 4to. 11. 1s. boards. Dodsley. [continued.]*

AFTER the two preliminary dissertations, of which we gave an account in our last Review, the learned author proceeds to his curious researches into the annals of English poetry. He divides the history into sections, marking various stages in the progression of poetry, and begins with observing, that the Saxon language spoken in England, is distinguished by three several epochs, in each of which a different dialect prevailed.

'The first of these, says he, is that which the Saxons used, from their entrance into this island, till the irruption of the Danes, for the space of three hundred and thirty years. This has been called the British Saxon: and no monument of it remains, except a small metrical fragment of the genuine Caedmon, inserted in Alfred's version of the Venerable Bede's Ecclesiastical History. The second is the Danish Saxon, which prevailed from the Danish to the Norman invasion; and of which many considerable specimens, both in verse and prose, are still preserved: particularly, two literal versions of the four Gospels, and the spurious Caedmon's beautiful poetical paraphrase of the book of Genesis, and the prophet Daniel. The third may be properly styled the Norman Saxon; which began about the time of the Norman accession, and continued beyond the reign of Henry II.'

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The first specimen of poetry with which our author presents us is extracted from the manuscripts of Digby in the Bodleian library at Oxford. It is a religious, or moral ode, consisting of one hundred and ninety one stanzas. It is supposed by Hickes to have been written soon after the Conquest; but as it contains few Norman terms, Mr. Warton is inclined to consider it as of higher antiquity. The composition is a regular lyric strophe of four lines, of which the second and fourth rhyme together. Mr. Warton entertains some suspicion, however, that these four lines may be resolved into two Alexandrines; a kind of measure which appears to have been very early invented: and he thinks there is greater reason for such an opinion, as he cannot recollect any strophes of this sort in the elder Runic or Saxon poetry. The following is the stanza produced as a specimen.

‘ Sende God biforen him man  
The while he may to hevene,  
For betere is on elmesse biforen  
Thanne ben after sevene.’

For many years after the Norman conquest, the English bards appear to have exercised their rude talents only on religious subjects. The earliest love-song which Mr. Warton has been able to discover in our language, is among the Harleian MSS. in the British Museum. He places it before, or about the year 1200; remarking that it is full of alliteration, and has a burthen or chorus.

‘ Blow northerne wynd, sent  
Thou me my suetyng; blow  
Northerne wynd, blou, blou, blou.  
Ich ot a burde in boure bryht  
That fully semly is on syht,  
Menskful maiden of myht,  
Feire ant fre to fonde.  
In al this wurhliche won,  
A burde of blod and of bon,  
Never zete y nuste non  
Luffomore in Londe. *Blow, &c.*  
With lokkes lesliche and longe,  
With front ant face feir to fonde  
With murthes monie mote heo monge  
That brid so breme in boure;  
With lossom eie grete and gode,  
Weth browen blisfoll undirhode,  
He that rest him on the rode  
That leslych lyf honoure. *Blou, &c.*  
Hire bire limmes liht,  
Ase a lantern a nyht,  
Hyr bleo blynkyth so bryht.  
Si feore heo is ant fyn,  
A suetly suyre heo hath to holde,  
With armes shuldre as mon wolde,

Ant fynghes feyre forte fold :  
 God wolde hue were myn.  
 Middel heo hath menskful small,  
 Hire loveliche chere as cristal ;  
 Theyes, legges, fit, and al,  
 Ywraught of the best ;  
 A lussum ladi lastelefs,  
 That sweting is and ever wes ;  
 A betere burde never was  
 Yheried with the heste,  
 Heo ys dere worthe in day,  
 Graciouse, stout, and gaye,  
 Gentil, joly, so the jay,  
 Workliche when she waketh,  
 Maiden murgest of mouth  
 Bi est, bi west, bi north, bi south,  
 That nis ficle me trouth,  
 That such murthes maketh.  
 Heo is corall of godnesse,  
 Heo is rubie of rich fulnesse,  
 Heo is cristal of clarnesse,  
 Ant baner of bealtie,  
 Heo is lilie of largesse,  
 Heo is parnenke pronesse,  
 Heo is falsecle of fuetnesse,  
 Ant ladi of lealtie,  
 To lou that lessich ys in londe  
 Ytolde as hi as ych understonde, &c.'

The following is copied from the same collection, and is supposed by Mr. Warton to be of equal antiquity.

' In a fryhte as y con fare framede  
 Y fownde a wet feyr fende to fere,  
 Heo glystenide ase gold when hit glemed,  
 Nes ner gom so gladly on gere,  
 Y wolde wyte in world who hire kenede  
 This burde bryht, zef hire wil were,  
 Heo me bed go my gates, lest hire gremede,  
 Ne kept heo non henyng here.

' In the following lines a lover compliments his mistress named Alyfoun.

' Bytween Mershe and Averile when spray beginneth to springe,  
 The lutel fowl hath hyre wyl on hyre lud to synge,  
 Ich libbem lonclonginge for semlokest of all thyng.  
 He may me blyffe bringe icham in hire banndonn,  
 An hendy happe ichabbe yhent ichot from hevene it is me sent.  
 From all wymmen mi love is lent and lyht on Alifoun,  
 On hers here is fayre yngh, hire browe bronne, hire eye blake,  
 With lossun chere he on me lok with middel sinal and welymake,  
 Bote he me wolle to hire take, &c.'

' —The following hexastic on a similar subject is the product of the same rude period, although the context is rather more intelligible : but it otherwise deserves a recital, as it presents an early sketch of a favourite and fashionable stanza.



Lenten ys come with love to tonne,  
With blofmen and with briddes ronne,  
That al this bliffe bryngeth :  
Dayes ezes in this dales  
Notes fuede of nightingales,  
Vch foul fonge fingeth.

\* This specimen will not be improperly succeeded by the following elegant lines, which a cotemporary poet appears to have made in a morning walk from Peterborough on the blessed Virgin : but whose genius seems better adapted to descriptive than religious subjects.

Now skruketh rose and lylic flour,  
That whilen ber that fuede favour  
In somer, that fuede tyde ;  
Ne is no quene so stark ne stour,  
Ne no luedy so bryht in bour  
That ded ne shal by glyde :  
Whoso wol fleshye lust for-gon and hevene-blyffe abyde  
On Jhesu be is thoht anon, that tharled was ys side.

\* To which we may add a song, probably written by the same author, on the five joys of the blessed Virgin.

Ase y me rod this ender day,  
By grenewode, to seche play ;  
Mid herte y thohte al on a May.  
Sueteste of al things :  
Lithe, and ich on tell may all of that fuede thinge.

\* In the same pastoral vein, a lover, perhaps of the reign of king John, thus addresses his mistress, whom he supposes to be the most beautiful girl, " Bituene Lyncolne and Lyndeseye, Northampton and Lounde."

When the nytenhale finges the wodes waxen grene,  
Lef, gras, and blofme, springes in Avril y wene.  
Ant love is to myn harte gon with one spere so kene  
Niht and day my blood hit drynkes my hart deth me tene.

\* Nor are these verses unpleasing, in somewhat the same measure.

My deth y love, my lyf ich hate for a levedy shene,  
Heo is brith so daies light, that is on me wel sene.  
Al y falewe so doth the lef in somir when hit is grene,  
Zef mi thoht helpeth me noht to whom schal I me mene ?  
Ich have loved at this yere that y may love na more,  
Ich have siked moni sih, lemon, for thin ore,  
... my love never the ner and that me reweth fore ;  
Suede lemon, thenck on me ich have loved the fore,  
Suede lemon, I preye the, of love one speche,  
While y lyve in worlde so wyde other nill I seche.

\* Another, in the following little poem, enigmatically compares his mistress, whose name seems to be Joan, to various gems and flowers. The writer is happy in his alliteration, and his verses are tolerably harmonious.

Ic hot a burde in a bour, ase beryl so bryght,  
Ase saphyr in selver semely on syht,  
Ase jaspe the gentil that lemeth with lyht,  
Ase gernet in golde and rubye wel ryht,

Ase onycle he is on y holden on hight;  
 Ase diamand the dere in day when he is dyht:  
 He is coral yend with Cayser and knyght,  
 Ase emeraude a morewen this may haveth myht.  
 The might of the margaryte haveth this mai mere,  
 Ffor charbocele iche hire chafe bi chyn and by chere,  
 Hire rede ys as rose that red ys on ryse,  
 With lilye white leves lossun he ys,  
 The primros he passeth, the penenke of prys,  
 With alisaundre thareto ache and anys:  
 Coynte as columbine such hire cande ys,  
 Glad under gore in gro and in grys.  
 Heo is blosme upon bleo brihtest under bis  
 With celydone ant sange as thou thi self sys,  
 From Weye he is wisist into Wyrhale,  
 Hire nome is in a note of the nyhtegale;  
 In a note is hire nome nempneth hit non  
 Who so ryht redeth ronne to Johon.'

We are here presented with several other poems from the Harleian collection, in which the stanzas are remarkably constructed. For instance:

' Herkne to my ron,      *Of elde al hou yt ges.*  
 As ich ou tell con,  
 Of a mody mon,      *Soth without les.*  
 Hihte Maximion,  
 Clerc he was ful god,      *Nou herkne how it wes.*  
 So moni mon undirstood.

' For the same reason, a sort of elegy on our Saviour's crucifixion should not be omitted. It begins thus:

I syke when y singe for sorewe that y see  
 When wy with wypinge bihold upon the tre,  
 Ant se Jhesu the suete  
 Is hert blod for-lete,  
    For the love of me;  
 Ys woundes waxen wete,  
 Thei wepen, still and mete,  
    Marie reweth me.

' Nor an alliterative ode on heaven, death, judgement, &c.  
 Middel-erd for mon was mad,  
 Un-miht aren is meste mede,  
 This hedy hath on bonde yhad,  
 That hevene hem is haste to hede.  
 Ich erde a blisse budel us bade,      *That he ben derne done.*  
 The dreri domesdai to drede,  
 Of sinful saughting sone be be sad,  
 That derne doth this derne dede,  
 This wrakefall werkes under wede,  
    In soule soteleth sone.'

These various sorts of versification, our author justly observes, evidently prove that much poetry had been written, and that the art had been greatly cultivated before this period. He also remarks, that it was customary with the early scribes, when stanzas consisted of short lines, to throw them

toge-



together like prose. The following is an example of this practice.

"A wayle whiyt, as whalles bon | a grein in golde that godly  
shon | a tortle that min hart is on | in tonnes trewe | Hire gladship  
nes never gon | while y may glewe."

'Sometimes they wrote three or four verses together as one line.

With longynge y am lad | on molde y waxe mad | a maid mar-  
reth me,

Y grede y grone un glad | for [selden I am sad | that seemly for  
te fee.

Levedi thou rewe me | to routhe thou havest me rad | be bote  
of that y bad | my lyf is long on the.

'Again,

Most i rydden by rybbes dale | widle women for te wale | ant  
welde wreek ich wolde :

Founde were the feirest on | that ever was mad of blod ant bon  
| in boure best with bolde.'

On this subject Mr. Warton further observes, some critics may be inclined to suspect, that the Alexandrine verse was accidentally produced from the practice of transcribers, who filled their pages to the extremity, violating the metrical structure for the sake of saving their vellum. There is, undoubtedly some ground for such a suspicion, when we consider that the Alexandrine verse, and the common stanza of four short lines, may be mutually reduced into each other. The Saxon poem, formerly cited, consisting of one hundred and ninety-one stanzas, is written in stanzas in the Bodleian, and in Alexandrines in the Trinity manuscript at Cambridge. In what form it was originally written is a point impossible to determine ; but if any argument can be of force against the conjecture abovementioned, it is the great variety of versification which appears to have been early introduced into English poetry.

In this period, satirical poems on the established and eminent professions, were also frequent ; and Mr. Warton observes, that they were not destitute of merit, when written in allegory ; but that nothing can be conceived more scurrilous and illiberal than those compositions when the subject of them was merely invective. What follows is the beginning of a satirical ballad on the clergy, copied from a MS. in the British Museum.

'Hyrd-men hatieth ant vch mones hyne  
For ever uch a paroshe heo polketh in pyne  
Ant clastreth wyf heore celle :  
Nou wol vch fol clerc that is fayly  
Wend to the byshop ant bugge bayly,  
Nys no wyt in is nolle.'

The

The most ancient English metrical romance which Mr. Warton has discovered, is *The Geste of King Horn*, which contains intrinsic evidence of its being written after the origin of the crusades. Our author relates the substance of the fable, and produces some specimens of the composition. He has found that the story occurs in very old French poems, among the MSS. in the British Museum; from whence he infers it to be a translation; a circumstance which he incidentally mentions as a confirmation of what he afterwards treats of at greater length; viz. that most of our metrical romances are translated from the French. The story of this romance is thus related by our author.

‘ Mury, king of the Saracens, lands in the kingdom of Suddene, where he kills the king named Allof. The queen, Godylt, escapes; but Mury seizes on her son Horne, a beautiful youth aged fifteen years, and puts him into a galley, with two of his play-fellows, Achulph and Fykenild: the vessel being driven on the coast of the kingdom of Westnesse, the young prince is found by Aylmar king of that country, brought to court, and delivered to Athelbrus his steward, to be educated in hawking, harping, tilting, and other courtly accomplishments. Here the princess Rymenild falls in love with him, declares her passion, and is betrothed. Horne, in consequence of this engagement, leaves the princess for seven years; to demonstrate, according to the ritual of chivalry, that by seeking and accomplishing dangerous enterprises he deserved her affection. He proves a most valorous and invincible knight: and at the end of seven years, having killed king Mury, recovered his father’s kingdom, and atchieved many signal exploits, recovers the princess Rymenild from the hands of his treacherous knight and companion Fykenyld; carries her in triumph to his own country, and there reigns with her in great splendor and prosperity.’

Of this poem Mr. Warton presents us with the beginning, and another passage, where prince Horne appears at the court of the king of Westnesse. We produce the latter as a specimen.

‘ The kyng com into hall, among his knyghtes alle,  
Forth he cleped Athelbrus, his stewarde, him seyde thus:  
“ Steward tal thou here my fundling for to lere,  
Of some mystere of woode and of ryvere,  
And toggen othe harpe with is nayles sharpe,  
And teche at the listes that thou ever wistes,  
Byfore me to kerven, and of my course to serven,  
Ant his feren devyse without other surmise;  
Horne-childe, thou understond, teche him of harpe and songe.”  
Athelbrus gon leren Horne and hys feren;  
Horne mid herte laghte al that mon hym taghte,  
Within court and withoute, and overall aboute,  
Lovede men Horne-child, and most him loved Ymenild  
The kinges owne dothter, for he was in hire thohte,  
Hire loved him in hire mod, for he was faire and eke gode,  
And that tyne ne dorste at worde and myd hem spek ner a worde,  
Ne



Ne in the halle, amonge the knyhtes alle,  
Hyre sorewe and hire payne nolde never sayne,  
Bi daye ne bi nyhte for here speke ne myhte,  
With Horne that was so feir and fre, tho hue ne myhte with him  
be;

In herte hue had care and wo, and thus hire bihote hire tho:  
Hue sende hyre sonde Athelbrus to honde,  
That he come here to, and also child Horne do,  
In to hire boure, for hue bigon to loure,  
And the sond sayde, that seke was the mayde,  
And bed hym quyke for hue nis non blyke.  
The stewart was in huerte wo, for he wist whit he shulde do,  
That Rymenyld bysohte gret wonder him thohte;  
About Horne he yinge to boure forte bringe,  
He thohte en his mode hit nes for none gode;  
He toke with him another, Atulph Horne's brother,  
"Athulph, quoth he, rhyt anon thou shalt with me to boure gon,  
To speke with Rymenyld stille, and to wyte hire wille,  
Thou art Horne's yliche, thou shalt hire by suyke,  
Sore me adrede that hire wil Horne mys rede."  
Athelbrus and Athulf tho to hire boure both ygo,  
Upon Athulf childe Rymenilde con wox wilde,  
Huc wende Horne it were, that hue hadde there;  
Huc setten adown stille, and syden hire wille,  
In her armes tweye Athulf she con leye,  
"Horne, quoth heo, wellong I have lovede thee strong,  
Thou shalt thy truth plyht in myne honde with ryht,  
Me to spouse welde and iche the loverde to helde."  
"So stille so hit were, Achulf seide in her ere,  
Ne tel thou no more speche may y the byseche  
Thi tale—thou linne, for Horne his nout his yinne, &c."

We cannot omit subjoining the judicious observations our author makes on this subject.

'It is the force of the story in these pieces that chiefly engages our attention. The minstrels had no idea of conducting and describing a delicate situation. The general manners were gross, and the arts of writing unknown. Yet this simplicity sometimes pleases more than the most artificial touches. In the mean time, the pictures of antient manners presented by these early writers, strongly interest the imagination: especially as having the same uncommon merit with the pictures of manners in Homer, that of being founded in truth and reality, and actually painted from the life. To talk of the grossness and absurdity of such manners is little to the purpose; the poet is only concerned in the justness and faithfulness of the representation.'

The second section of the work commences with the state of English poetry about the year 1200, or rather later. From this period, Mr. Warton observes, it will appear to have made no very rapid improvement. He remarks, that as we proceed, however, we shall find the language divesting itself considerably of its ancient barbarism and obscurity. The first poem which the historian produces after this epoch, is a satirical song, or ballad, written by a partizan of Simon de Montfort, earl

earl of Leicester, a powerful baron, after the battle of Lewes, which was fought in the year 1264, in the reign of Henry III. and proved very fatal to the interest of the king. The poem is as follows; and Mr. Warton thinks it probable, that these popular rhymes had no small influence in animating those of Leicester's party, and increasing their number. This conjecture is far from being ill-founded, when we consider how much attention was paid to the compositions of the bards in those times.

• Sitteth alle stille, ant herkeneth to me :

The kyng of Alemaigne, bi mi leaute,

Thritti thousand pound askede he

For te make the pees in the cōuntre,

And so so he dude more.

Richard, thah thou be ever tricchard,

Tricthen shall thou never more.

• Richard of Alemaigne, whil that he was a kying,

He spende al is tresour opon swyvyng,

Haveth he nout of Walingford oferlyng,

Let him habbe, ase he brew, bale to dryng,

Maugre Wyndesore.

Richard, thah thou, &c.

• The kyng of Alemaigne wende do ful wel,

He saisede the mulne for a castel,

With hare sharpe swerdes he grounde the stel,

He wende that the sayles were mangonel

To help Wyndesore.

Richard, thah thou, &c.

• The kyng of Alemaigne gederede ys oft,

Makede hym a castel of a mulne post,

Wende with is prude, ant is muckele boft,

Brohte from Almayne mony fori gost

To store Wyndesore.

Richard, thah thou, &c.

• By god that is aboven ous he dude muche synne,

That let passen over see the erl of Warynne :

He hath robbed Engelonde, the mores, ant the fenne,

The gold, ant the selver, and y-boren henne,

For love of Wyndesore.

Richard, thah thou, &c.

• Syre Simonde de Mountfort hath suore bi ys chyn,

Hevede he nou here the erle of Waryn,

Shuld he never more come to is yn,

Ne with shelde, ne with spere, ne with other gyn,

To help of Wyndesore :

Richard, thah thou, &c.

• Syre Simond de Montfort hath swore bi ys fot,

Hevede he nou here Sire Hue of de Bigot,

Al he shulde grante hen twelfemonth scot

Shulde he never more with his fot pot,

To help Wyndesore.

Richard thah thou, &c.



Our author has not neglected to mention that Henry III. retained in his court a poet with a certain salary, whose name was Henry de Avranches; he is called *Master Henry the Versifier*; which appellation, Mr. Warton says, perhaps, implies a different character from the royal *Minstrel*, or *Joculator*. In the year 1249, the king's treasurers are ordered to pay this *Master Henry* one hundred shillings, which was probably a year's stipend. The same order is repeated in the year 1251. To this anecdote Mr. Warton adds another, of a similar kind; which is, that in the thirty-sixth year of the same king, forty shillings, and one pipe of wine were given to Richard the king's harper, and one pipe of wine to Beatrice his wife. 'But, says our author, why this gratuity of a pipe of wine should also be made to the wife, as well as to the husband, who, from his profession was a genial character, appears problematical according to our present ideas.'

The first poet whose name is mentioned in this history, occurs in the reign of Edward I. and is Robert of Gloucester, a monk of that abbey. A poem of considerable length, composed by this bard about the year 1280, has descended to posterity. It is a rhyming chronicle of England, from Brutus to the reign of Edward I. totally destitute, as Mr. Warton observes, of art or imagination.

Towards the end of the same reign, and in the year 1303, another poet is mentioned in these annals, named Robert Mannyng, but more commonly designed Robert de Brunne, a Gilbertine monk in the monastery of Brunne, or Bourne, near Depyng, in Lincolnshire. Mr. Warton observes that he was merely a translator. He translated into English metre, or rather paraphrased, a French book, written by Groishead bishop of Lincoln, entitled, *Manul Peche*, or *Manuel de Peche*; the *Manual of Sins*. The subject of it is the Decalogue, and the seven deadly sins, illustrated with many legendary stories. The same Robert de Brunne also wrote a metrical chronicle of England; the former part of which, from *Æneas* to the death of Cadwallader, is translated from an old French poet, called *Maister Wace*, or *Gasse*, who copied Geoffry of Monmouth, in a poem entitled, *Roman de Rois d'Angleterre*. The second part of this Chronicle, beginning from Cadwallader, and ending with Edward I. is chiefly translated from the second part of a French metrical chronicle, written by Peter Langtoft, an Augustine canon of the monastery of Bridlington, Yorkshire.

We shall present our readers with an extract, where Vortigern king of the Britons is represented meeting the beautiful princess Rouwen, daughter of Hengist, the Rosamond (says.

Mr.

Mr. Warton) of the Saxon ages, at a feast of Wassaile. It is, as our author observes, a curious picture of the gallantry of the times.

‘ Hengest that day did his might,  
That alle were glad, king and knight,  
And as thei were best in glading,  
And wele cop schotin knight and king,  
Of chambir Rouewen so gent,  
Be fore the king in halle scho went.  
A coupe with wyne sche had in hand,  
And hir hatire was wele farand.  
Be fore the king on kne sett,  
And on hir langage scho him grett.

“ Lauerid king, Wassaille,” seid sche.  
The king asked, what suld be.  
On that langage the king ne couthe.  
A knight ther langage lerid in youthe.  
Breg hiht that knight born Bretoun,  
That lerid the langage of Sessoun.  
This Breg was the latimer.

What scho said told Vortager.

“ Sir, Breg seid, Rowen you gretis,  
And king callis and lord you letis.  
This es ther custom and ther gest,  
Whan thei are atte the ale or fest.  
Ilk man that lous quare him think,  
Salle say Wosseille, and to him drink.  
He that bidis falle say, Wassaille,  
The tother falle say again, Drinkhaille.  
That sais Wosseille drinkis of the cop,  
Kissand his felaw he gives it up.  
Drinkheille, he sais, and drinke ther of,  
Kissand him in bourd and skof.”

The king said, as the knight gan ken,  
Drinkheille, smiland on Rouewen.  
Rouwen drank as hire list,  
And gave the king, fine him kist.  
There was the first wassaille in dede,  
And that first of fame gede.  
Of that wassaille men told grete tale,  
And wassaille whan thei were at ale.  
And drinkeille to tham that drank,  
Thus was wassaille tane to thank.

‘ Fele sithes that maidin ying,  
Wassailed and kist the king.  
Of bodi sche was right avenant,  
Of fair colour, with swete semblaunt.  
Hir hatire fulle wele it semed,  
Mervelik the king sche quemid.  
Oute of mesure was he glad,  
For of that maidin he wer alle mad.  
Drunkenes the seend wrought,  
Of that paen was al his thoght.  
A meschaunche that time him led.  
He asked thar paen for to wed.

Hengist



Hengist wild not draw a lite,  
 Bot graunted him alle so tite.  
 And Hors his brother consentid sone.  
 Her frendis said, it were to done.  
 Thei asked the king to gife hir Kent,  
 In douary to take of rent.  
 O pon that maidin his hert so cast,  
 That thei askid the king made fast.  
 I wene the king toke her that day,  
 And wedded hire on paiens lay.  
 Of prest was ther no benison  
 No mes songen, no orison.  
 In seifine he had her that night.  
 Of Kent he gave Hengist the right.  
 The erelle that time, that Kent alle held,  
 Sir Goragon, that had the scheld,  
 Of that gift no thing ne wist  
 To he was caste oute with Hengist.'

Mr. Warton justly observes, that it was a great impediment to the cultivation of the English language in those early periods, that the best authors chose to write in French. He considers it, however, as a fortunate circumstance, that persons who perhaps were unable to aspire to the rank of original writers, found in those French pieces subjects for translation, by the performance of which they contributed to improve their native tongue.

The last poem produced in this section of the work is an Elegy on king Edward I. who died in the year 1307. This being the earliest elegiac composition that occurs in the annals of English poetry, we will lay it before our readers.

' Alle that beoth of huert trewe  
 A stounde herkneth to my songe,  
 Of duel that Dethe has dihte us newe.  
 That maketh me seke and forewe amonge:  
 Of a knyht that wes so stronge  
 Of whom god hath done ys wille;  
 Methuncheth that Deth has don us wronge  
 That he so sone shall ligge stille.  
 Al England ahte forte knowe:  
 Of whom that song ys that ysynge,  
 Of Edward kynge that ys so bolde,  
 Gent all this world is nome con springe:  
 Trewest mon of all thinge,  
 Ant in werre ware and wise;  
 For hym we ahte our honden wrynge,  
 Of christendome he bare the pris.  
 Before that oure kynge was ded  
 He speke as mon that was in care  
 " Clerkes, knyhts, barrons, he fed  
 Ycharge ou by oure sware  
 That ye be to Englonde trewe,  
 Y deze y ne may lyven na more;  
 Helpeth mi sone, ant crowneth him newe,  
 For he is nest to buen y-core.

Iche

Iche biqueth myn hirte aryht,  
 That hit be write at mi devys,  
 Over the sea that Huz be diht,  
 With fourscore knyghtes al of pris,  
 In werre that buen war aut wys,  
 Agein the hethene for te fyhte,  
 To wynne the croize that lowe lys,  
 Myself ycholde gef thet y myhte."

Kyng of Fraunce! thou hevedest sunne,  
 That thou the counsail woldest fonde,  
 To latte the wille of kyng Edward,  
 To wende to the holi londe;  
 Thet our kynge hede take on honde,  
 All Engeland to zeme and wyffe,  
 To wendon in to the holy londe  
 To wynnen us heveriche blisse.

The messager to the pope com  
 And seyede that our kynge was dede,  
 Ys owne honde the lettre he nom,  
 Ywis his herte wes ful gret:  
 The pope himself the lettre redde,  
 And spec a word of gret honour.  
 "Alas! he seid, is Edward ded?  
 Of christendome he ber the flour!"

The pope is to chaumbre wende  
 For dole ne mihte he speke na more  
 Ant astur cardinales he sende  
 That mucche couthen of Cristes lore.  
 Both the lasse ant oke the more  
 Bed hem both red ant syng:  
 Great deel me myhte se thore,  
 Many mon is honde wrynge.

The pope of Peyters stod at is masse  
 With ful gret solempnete,  
 Ther me con the soule blisse:  
 "Kyng Edward, honoured thou be:  
 God love thi sone come after the,  
 Bring to ende that thou hast bygonne,  
 The holy crois ymade of tre  
 So fain thou woldest hit have ywonne.

Jerusalem, thou hast ilore  
 The floure of al chivalrie,  
 Now kyng Edward liveth na more,  
 Alas, that he yet shulde deye!  
 He wolde ha rered up ful heyge  
 Our baners that bueth broht to grounde:  
 Wel longe we may clepe and crie,  
 Er we such a kyng have yfounde!"

Now is Edward of Carnarvan,  
 Kyng of Engelon al aplyht;  
 God lete hem ner be worse man  
 Then his fader ne lasse of myht,  
 To holden is pore man to ryht  
 And understende good counsail,  
 All Engeland for to wyffe and dyht  
 Of gode knyghtes darh hym nout fail



Thah mi tonge were mad of stel  
Ant min herte yzote of bras  
The godness myht y never telle  
That with kyng Edward was.  
Kyng as thou art cleped conquerour  
In vch battaile thou heedest prys,  
Gode bringe thi soule to the honeur  
That ever was and ever ys.

We must again suspend the prosecution of this entertaining work till the next opportunity.

[ To be concluded in our next. ]

IV. *Letters written by the late Right Honourable Philip Dormer Stanhope, Earl of Chesterfield, to his Son, Philip Stanhope, Esq. late Envoy Extraordinary at the Court of Dresden: Together with several other Pieces on various Subjects. Published by Mrs. Eugenia Stanhope, from the Originals now in her Possession. Two Vols. 4to. 2l. 2s. boards. Doddsley. [Concluded.]*

WE resume with pleasure the task of bringing our readers more intimately acquainted with this polished nobleman. In the epistolary manner he excels. Fluency, purity, and a happy facility of language, are peculiarly his talent. From circumstances it appears that many of Chesterfield's letters were dispatched without revisal, yet are they perfectly correct, without the stiffness which accompanies most publications of this nature. Even the Letters of Sir William Temple bear marks of official accuracy; and as for those of Pope, Swift, Bolingbroke, and other wits of the last age, they seem written more for the public than the persons to whom they are addressed. They are not the familiar chaste language of private conversation, but the studied expressions of regular compositions. In this respect, lord Chesterfield has rescued his country from the just reproach of foreigners—That the English excelled in the productions of genius and learning, but could not write letters. It is, probably, from a defect in education that the English have seldom manifested excellence in this most essential accomplishment of a gentleman and man of business. Youth are confined too long to the formal compositions of the schools, and introduced too late to the pleasures of conversation. The noble writer before us give the example that an elegant letter is nothing more than a polite discourse on paper, where the first thoughts are expressed in the easiest language; and we will venture to say, that no mere scholar and book worm ever yet made a figure in letter-writing.

The following letter is not only a proof of lord Chesterfield's talents in familiar writing, but valuable also for the matter it contains.

London, Feb. 11th, O. S. 1751.

My dear friend,

When you go to the play, which I hope you do often, for it is a very instructive amusement, you must certainly have observed the very different effects which the several parts have upon you, according as they are well or ill acted. The very best tragedy of Corneille's, if well spoken and acted, interests, engages, agitates, and affects your passions. Love, terror, and pity, alternately possess you. But, if ill spoken and acted, it would only excite your indignation or your laughter. Why? It is still Corneille's; it is the same sense, the same matter, whether well or ill acted. It is then merely the manner of speaking and acting that makes this great difference in the effects. Apply this to yourself, and conclude from it, that if you would either please in a private company, or persuade in a public assembly; air, looks, gestures, graces, enunciation, proper accents, just emphasis, and tuneful cadences, are full as necessary as the matter itself. Let awkward, ungraceful, inelegant, and dull fellows, say what they will in behalf of their solid matter, and strong reasonings; and let them despise all those graces and ornaments, which engages the senses and captivate the heart; they will find (though they will possibly wonder why) that their rough unpolished matter, and their unadorned, coarse, but strong arguments, will neither please nor persuade; but, on the contrary, will tire out attention, and excite disgust. We are so made, we love to be pleased, better than to be informed; information is, in a certain degree, mortifying, as it implies our previous ignorance; it must be sweetened to be palatable.

To bring this directly to you; know that no man can make a figure in this country, but by parliament. Your fate depends upon your success there as a speaker; and, take my word for it, that success turns much more upon manner than matter. Mr. Pitt, and Mr. Murray, the solicitor-general, uncle to lord Stormont, are, beyond comparison, the best speakers; why? only because they are the best orators. They alone can inflame or quiet the house; they alone are so attended to, in that numerous and noisy assembly, that you might hear a pin fall while either of them is speaking. Is it that their matter is better, or their arguments stronger, than other people's? Does the house expect extraordinary informations from them? Not in the least; but the house expects pleasure from them, and therefore attends; finds it, and therefore approves. Mr. Pitt, particularly, has very little parliamentary knowledge; his matter is generally flimsy, and his arguments often weak: but his eloquence is superior, his action graceful, his enunciation just and harmonious; his periods are well turned, and every word he makes use of is the very best, and the most expressive, that can be used in that place. This, and not his matter, made him pay-master, in spite of both king and ministers. From this, draw the obvious conclusion. The same thing holds full as true in conversation; where even trifles, elegantly expressed, well looked, and accompanied with graceful action, will ever please, beyond all the home-spun, unadorned sense in the world. Reflect, on one side, how you feel, within yourself, while you are forced to suffer the tedious, muddy, and ill-turned narration of some  
awk-



awkward fellow, even though the fact may be interesting; and on the other hand, with what pleasure you attend to the relation of a much less interesting matter, when elegantly expressed, genteely turned, and gracefully delivered. By attending carefully to all these agréments in your daily conversation, they will become habitual to you, before you come into parliament; and you will have nothing then to do, but to raise them a little when you come there. I would wish you to be so attentive to this object, that I would not have you speak to your footman, but in the very best words that the subject admits of, be the language which it will. Think of your words, and of their arrangement, before you speak; chuse the most elegant, and place them in the best order. Consult your own ear, to avoid cacophony; and what is very near as bad, monotony. Think also of your gesture and looks, when you are speaking even upon the most trifling subjects. The same things, differently expressed, looked, and delivered, cease to be the same things. The most passionate lover in the world cannot make a stronger declaration of love, than the Bourgeois gentilhomme does in this happy form of words, "*Mourir d'amour me font belle Marquise vos beaux yeux.*" I defy any body to say more; and yet I would advise no body to say that; and I would recommend to you, rather to smother and conceal your passion intirely, than to reveal it in these words. Seriously, this holds in every thing, as well as in that ludicrous instance. The French, to do them justice, attend very minutely to the purity, the correctness, and the elegance of their style, in conversation, and in their letters. *Bien narrer* is an object of their study; and though they sometimes carry it to affectation, they never sink into inelegancy, which is much the worst extreme of the two. Observe them, and form your French style upon theirs; for elegance in one language will reproduce itself in all. I knew a young man, who, being just elected a member of parliament, was laughed at for being discovered, through the key hole of his chamber-door, speaking to himself in the glass, and forming his looks and gestures. I could not join in that laugh; but, on the contrary, thought him much wiser than those who laughed at him; for he knew the importance of those little graces in a public assembly, and they did not. Your little person, (which I am told by the way is not ill turned) whether in a laced coat, or a blanket, is specifically the same; but yet, I believe, you chuse to wear the former; and you are in the right, for the sake of pleasing more. The worst bred man in Europe, if a lady let fall her fan, would certainly take it up and give it her: the best bred man in Europe could do no more. The difference however would be considerable; the latter would please by doing it gracefully; the former would be laughed at for doing it awkwardly. I repeat it, and repeat it again, and shall never cease repeating it to you; air, manners, graces, style, elegance, and all those ornaments, must now be the only objects of your attention; it is now, or never, that you must acquire them. Postpone, therefore, all other considerations; make them now your serious study: you have not one moment to lose. The solid and the ornamental united, are undoubtedly best; but were I reduced to make an option, I should without hesitation chuse the latter.

\* I hope you assiduously frequent Marcel, and carry graces from him; nobody had more to spare than he had formerly. Have you

\* At that time the most celebrated dancing-master at Paris.

A a a

learned

learned to carve? for it is ridiculous not to carve well. A man who tells you gravely that he cannot carve, may as well tell you that he cannot blow his nose; it is both as necessary, and as easy.

Make my compliments to lord Huntingdon, whom I love and honour extremely, as I dare say you do; I will write to him soon, though I believe he has hardly time to read a letter; and my letters to those I love are, as you know by experience, not very short ones: this is one proof of it, and this would have been longer, if the paper had been so. Good night then, my dear child.

This instructive correspondence with his son, which continued for the course of thirty years, is closed with some letters of the earl to Mrs. Stanhope, and her children. How well his lordship could, at a very advanced period of life, accommodate his style and manners to the capacity of children, appears from the following letter to Charles and Philip Stanhope, then at school.

‘ Bath, Oct. 27, 1771.

‘ I received, a few days ago, two the best written letters that ever I saw in my life; the one signed Charles Stanhope, the other Philip Stanhope. As for you, Charles, I did not wonder at it; for you will take pains, and are a lover of letters: but you, idle rogue, you Phil, how came you to write so well, that one can almost say of you two, *et cantare pares et respondere parati*? Charles will explain this Latin to you.

I am told, Phil, that you have got a nick-name at school, from your intimacy with master Strangeways; and that they call you master *Strangerways*; for, to be sure, you are a strange boy. Is this true?

‘ Tell me what you would have me bring you both from hence, and I will bring it you, when I come to town. In the mean time, God bless you both! Chesterfield.’

To the letters are subjoined, some account of the seven United Provinces; Maxims, by the Earl of Chesterfield; Political Maxims of the Cardinal de Retz, with Lord Chesterfield's Remarks; Considerations on the Repeal of the Limitation relative to Foreigners, in the Act of Settlement; Axioms in Trade; a Humorous Petition to the King; with some other pieces of less consequence, and, indeed, of no other consequence than that they are remains of the earl of Chesterfield.

As the Maxims contain, in a very compressed form, the substance of his lordship's instructions to Mr. Stanhope as a man of business, of the world, and a courtier, we shall quote them for the benefit of readers who may not have access to the Letters.

‘ A proper secrecy is the only mystery of able men; mystery is the only secrecy of weak and cunning ones.

‘ A man who tells nothing, or who tells all, will equally have nothing told him.

‘ If a fool knows a secret, he tells it because he is a fool: if a knave knows one, he tells it wherever it is his interest to tell it.

But



But women, and young men, are very apt to tell what secrets they know, from the vanity of having been trusted. Trust none of these, whenever you can help it.

‘ Inattention to the present business, be it what it will; the doing one thing, and thinking at the same time of another, or the attempting to do two things at once; are the never-failing signs of a little, frivolous mind.

‘ A man who cannot command his temper, his attention, and his countenance, should not think of being a man of business. The weakest man in the world can avail himself of the passion of the wisest. The inattentive man cannot know the business, and consequently cannot do it. And he who cannot command his countenance, may e’en as well tell his thoughts as show them.

‘ Distrust all those who love you extremely upon a very slight acquaintance, and without any visible reason. Be upon your guard, too, against those, who confess, as their weaknesses, all the cardinal virtues.

‘ In your friendships, and in your enmities, let your confidence, and your hostilities have certain bounds: make not the former dangerous, nor the latter irreconcilable. There are strange vicissitudes in business!

‘ Smooth your way to the head, through the heart. The way of reason is a good one; but it is commonly something longer, and perhaps not so sure.

‘ Spirit is now a very fashionable word: to act with spirit, to speak with spirit, means only, to act rashly, and to talk indiscreetly. An able man shows his spirit, by gentle words and resolute actions: he is neither hot nor timid.

‘ When a man of sense happens to be in that disagreeable situation, in which he is obliged to ask himself, more than once, What shall I do? He will answer himself, Nothing. When his reason points out to him no good way, or at least no one way less bad than another, he will stop short, and wait for light. A little, busy mind runs on at all events, must be doing; and, like a blind horse, fears no dangers, because he sees none. *Il faut sçavoir s’ennuier.*

‘ Patience is a most necessary qualification for business: many a man would rather you heard his story, than granted his request. One must seem to hear the unreasonable demands of the petulant, unmoved, and the tedious details of the dull, untired. That is the least price that a man must pay for a high station.

‘ It is always right to detect a fraud, and to perceive a folly; but it is often very wrong to expose either. A man of business should always have his eyes open; but must often seem to have them shut.

‘ In courts, nobody should be below your management and attention: the links that form the court-chain are innumerable and inconceivable. You must hear with patience the dull grievances of a gentleman usher, or a page of the back-stairs; who, very probably, lies with some near relation of the favourite maid, of the favourite mistress, of the favourite minister, or perhaps of the king himself; and who, consequently, may do you more dark and indirect good, or harm, than the first man of quality.

‘ One good patron at court may be sufficient, provided you have no personal enemies; and, in order to have none, you must sacrifice (as the Indians do to the devil) most of your passions, and much of your time, to the numberless evil beings that infest it: in order to prevent and avert the mischiefs they can do you.

' A young man, be his merit what it will, can never raise himself; but must, like the ivy round the oak, twine himself round some man of great power and interest. You must belong to a minister some time, before any body will belong to you. And an inviolable fidelity to that minister, even in his disgrace, will be meritorious, and recommend you to the next. Ministers love a personal, much more than a party attachment.

' As kings are begotten and born like other men, it is to be presumed they are of the human species; and, perhaps, had they the same education, they might prove like other men. But, flattered from their cradles, their hearts are corrupted, and their heads are turned, so that they seem to be a species by themselves. No king ever said to himself, *Homo sum, nihil humani a me alienum puto.*

' Flattery cannot be too strong for them; drunk with it from their infancy, like old drinkers, they require drams.

They prefer a personal attachment to a public service, and reward it better. They are vain and weak enough to look upon it as a free-will offering to their merit, and not as a burnt sacrifice to their power.

' If you would be a favourite of your king, address yourself to his weaknesses. An application to his reason will seldom prove very successful.

' In courts, bashfulness and timidity are as prejudicial on one hand, as impudence and rashness are on the other. A steady assurance, and a cool intrepidity, with an exterior modesty, are the true and necessary medium.

' Never apply for what you see very little probability of obtaining; for you will, by asking improper and unattainable things, accustom the ministers to refuse you so often, that they will find it easy to refuse you the properest, and most reasonable ones. It is a common, but a most mistaken rule at court, to ask for every thing in order to get something: you do get something by it, it is true; but that something is, refusals and ridicule.

' There is a court jargon, a chit-chat, a small talk, which turns singly upon trifles; and which, in a great many words, says little or nothing. It stands fools in stead of what they cannot say, and men of sense instead of what they should not say. It is the proper language of levées, drawing-rooms, and antichambers: it is necessary to know it.

' Whatever a man is at court, he must be genteel and well-bred; that cloak covers as many follies, as that of charity does sins. I knew a man of great quality, and in a great station at court, considered and respected, whose highest character was, that he was humbly proud, and genteely dull.

' It is hard to say, which is the greatest fool; he who tells the whole truth, or he who tells no truth at all. Character is as necessary in business as in trade. No man can deceive often in either.

' At court, people embrace without acquaintance, serve one another without friendship, and injure one another without hatred. Interest, not sentiment, is the growth of that soil.

' A difference of opinion, though in the merest trifles, alienates little minds, especially of high rank. It is full as easy to commend as to blame a great man's cook, or his taylor: it is shorter too; and the objects are no more worth disputing about, than the people are worth disputing with. It is impossible to inform, but very easy to displease them.

' A cheer-



‘ A chearful, easy countenance and behaviour, are very useful at court: they make fools think you a good-natured man; and they make designing men think you an undesigning one.

‘ There are some occasions in which a man must tell half his secret, in order to conceal the rest; but there is seldom one in which a man should tell it all. Great skill is necessary to know how far to go, and where to stop.

‘ Ceremony is necessary in courts, as the outwork and defence of manners.

‘ Flattery, though a base coin, is the necessary pocket-money at court; where, by custom and consent, it has obtained such a currency, that it is no longer a fraudulent, but a legal payment.

‘ If a minister refuses you a reasonable request, and either slights or injures you; if you have not the power to gratify your resentment, have the wisdom to conceal and dissemble it. Seeming good-humour on your part may prevent rancour on his, and, perhaps, bring things right again: but if you have the power to hurt, hint modestly, that if provoked, you may, possibly, have the will too. Fear, when real, and well founded, is, perhaps, a more prevailing motive at courts than love.

‘ At court, many more people can hurt, than can help you; please the former, but engage the latter.

‘ Awkwardness is a more real disadvantage than it is generally thought to be; it often occasions ridicule, it always lessens dignity.

‘ A man's own good-breeding is his best security against other people's ill manners.

‘ Good-breeding carries along with it a dignity, that is respected by the most petulant. Ill-breeding invites and authorizes the familiarity of the most timid. No man ever said a pert thing to the duke of Marlborough. No man ever said a civil one (though many a flattering one) to sir Robert Walpole.

‘ When the old clipped money was called in for a new coinage in king William's time; to prevent the like for the future, they stamped on the edges of the crown pieces, these words, *Et Decus et Tutamen*. That is exactly the case of good-breeding.

‘ Knowledge may give weight, but accomplishments only give lustre; and many more people see than weigh.

‘ Most arts require long study and application; but the most useful art of all, that of pleasing, requires only the desire.

‘ It is to be presumed, that a man of common sense, who does not desire to please, desires nothing at all; since he must know that he cannot obtain any thing without it.

‘ A skilful negotiator will most carefully distinguish between the little and the great objects of his business, and will be as frank and open in the former, as he will be secret and pertinacious in the latter.

‘ He will, by his manners and address, endeavour, at least, to make his public adversaries his personal friends. He will flatter and engage the man, while he counterworks the minister; and he will never alienate people's minds from him, by wrangling for points, either absolutely unattainable, or not worth attaining. He will make even a merit of giving up, what he could not or would not carry, and sell a trifle for a thousand times its value.

‘ A foreign minister, who is concerned in great affairs, must necessarily have spies in his pay; but he must not too easily credit their informations, which are never exactly true, often very false. His best spies will always be those whom he does not pay, but

whom he has engaged in his service by his dexterity and address, and who think themselves nothing less than spies.

‘ There is a certain jargon, which, in French, I should call un *periflage d'affaires*, that a foreign minister ought to be perfectly master of, and may use very advantageously at great entertainments, in mixed companies, and in all occasions where he must speak, and should say nothing. Well turned and well spoken, it seems to mean something, though in truth it means nothing. It is a kind of political badinage, which prevents or removes a thousand difficulties, to which a foreign minister is exposed in mixed conversations.

‘ If ever the *Volto Sciolto*, and the *Penfieri Stretti* are necessary, they are so in these affairs. A grave, dark, reserved, and mysterious air, has *foenum in cornu*. An even, easy, unembarrassed one invites confidence, and leaves no room for guesses and conjectures.

‘ Both simulation and dissimulation are absolutely necessary for a foreign minister; and yet they must stop short of falsehood and perfidy: that middle point is the difficult one: there ability consists. He must often seem pleased, when he is vexed; and grave, when he is pleased; but he must never say either: that would be falsehood, an indelible stain to character.

‘ A foreign minister should be a most exact œconomist; an expence proportioned to his appointments and fortune is necessary: but, on the other hand, debt is inevitable ruin to him. It sinks him into disgrace at the court where he resides, and into the most servile and abject dependence on the court that sent him. As he cannot resent ill usage, he is sure to have enough of it.

‘ The duc de Sully observes very justly in his *Memoirs*, that nothing contributed more to his rise, than that prudent œconomy which he had observed from his youth; and by which he had always a sum of money before hand, in case of emergencies.

‘ It is very difficult to fix the particular point of œconomy; the best error of the two, is on the parsimonious side. That may be corrected, the other cannot.

‘ The reputation of generosity is to be purchased pretty cheap; it does not depend so much upon a man's general expence, as it does upon his giving handsomely where it is proper to give at all. A man, for instance, who should give a servant four shillings, would pass for covetous, while he who gave him a crown, would be reckoned generous: so that the difference of those two opposite characters, turns upon one shilling. A man's character, in that particular, depends a great deal upon the report of his own servants; a mere trifle above common wages makes their report favourable.

‘ Take care always to form your establishment so much within your income, as to leave a sufficient fund for unexpected contingencies, and a prudent liberality. There is hardly a year, in any man's life, in which a small sum of ready money may not be employed to great advantage\*.

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‘ Upon the back of the original is written, in Mr. Stanhope's hand, “ Excellent Maxims, but more calculated for the meridian of France or Spain, than of England.”



*V. Cases in the Acute Rheumatism and the Gout; with cursory Remarks, and the Method of Treatment. By Thomas Dawson, M.D. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.*

THESE Cases, which appear to be faithfully related, contain an account of several cures performed, or great benefit received from the use of the tinct. guaiac. vol. taken in the quantity of half an ounce, made into a draught with common water, in the acute rheumatism and gout. We shall lay before our readers the first case, and part of the author's remarks upon it.

‘ Mary Wright, of Stoke-Newington, of a sanguineous, and healthy complexion, aged 19, was, from catching cold, on the 14th of August 1772, suddenly seized with a pungent, throbbing pain in her left ankle, which quickly afterwards became red, and swelled. She, herself, and her neighbours, attributed this at first to a strain; for the removal of which, liniments, &c. were applied, but without effect. Her pain sensibly encreased by the warmth of the bed; and, on the third day from the attack, she became manifestly feverish; observing, at the same time, that her fever, her sweats, as well as the acuteness of the pains, were greatly augmented during the night. The anguish, before this time confined to her ankle only, was now become universal. The joints of her legs and arms were remarkably swelled and enflamed; and her fever, thirst, and restlessness, seemed daily to encrease. Upon which she called for assistance; and, as well as I could guess, both from its taste and its effects, (always occasioning a sense of coldness at her stomach) a single saline mixture, with the addition of nitre, was all that had been directed for her.

‘ I was sent for on the 27th, a fortnight from the commencement of the complaint, and found her as above described. Her tongue was white, but moist, her pulse quick, but rather weak. She was withal very costive. There was no delirium; nor had there been the least tendency to it at any time.

‘ I ordered her to be bled immediately, and directed half an ounce of tinct. guaic. vol. in two ounces and a half of common water, to be taken at night, and repeated early in the morning. Both the draughts were taken without any difficulty; and in the evening of the 28th, I found her sitting up; her pains and fever having entirely vanished. The blood was extremely fizy and viscid.

‘ The medicine gave her a few motions, and produced a critical discharge, both by perspiration and urine.

‘ Nothing

‘ Nothing seemed further necessary, nor was any thing further done, than barely directing a little elix. paregor. to allay the ruffle, and to prevent the looseness going too far. I neither followed it with the bark, nor directed the cold bath: one or other of which I have usually directed, and sometimes both, to prevent a return of the disorder.

‘ Happily for the patient, she stood in need of neither, but hath continued perfectly well ever since.’

‘ —*Remarks.* We have here a patient, who had been grievously afflicted for a full fortnight, bled after an attentive inspection of the case in the evening of one day, when this particular medicine was administered soon afterwards, and repeated in the morning; and in the evening of the same day, totally freed from all fever, and every attendant complaint: her health restored without any further measures being used or any return of her disorder. Does this warrant us to do the same, at all times, and in every stage of the disease, without any consideration of circumstances? No, surely! This would be a most hasty and imperfect conclusion indeed, and might lead to very dangerous errors in practice. A fortnight had elapsed before the above measures were taken for her relief: nature had, all this time, been at work in her own mysterious laboratory. A fever was visibly her instrument. She had not been disturbed in her operations either by bleeding, by clysters, or purgatives. A saline or nitrous mixture, such it appeared to me, was all that had been given. A great co-tiveness prevailed, and the fever, though more inert, yet still retained a degree of activity, as is usual before it takes its departure. Nature also, it is very probable, had been discharging some of the offending matter through the inflamed and tumefied joints, by an insensible, whilst the intervening sweats were doing the same, by a more sensible perspiration. The morbid matter seemed fully prepared, by a due concoction, to pass through the innumerable and invisible outlets, which cover the surface of the body, as well as down the great excretory canal, through the urinary passages, and the orifice of the vein. All this assistance being given at once, in the seasonable moment, when nature was struggling in this last finishing operation, the crisis became perfect and complete.

‘ The time when this was done, is so material a circumstance, that it can by no means be overlooked, if we would pursue a similar treatment. Had the same measures been directed on the second, third, or fourth day from the commencement of the disorder, it is probable, that they would have been attended with no such fortunate event, but perhaps quite the contrary. The state of the case then, would have been



been no longer the same, and therefore the expected issue, might have been very different, though the prescribed methods were the same. We might have been doing harm instead of good, and obstructing nature too much, in her wise and kind endeavours to serve us. Both the fever and the costiveness might have been wanted here, for the present, to forward and execute her intentions, and to ripen the matter for a more speedy and effectual termination.'

From the various Cases which Dr. Dawson has produced, the efficacy of the medicine which he recommends appears in a very favourable light; but he candidly refrains from determining how early in the disease it may be most successfully administered. This method of giving the tincture of guaiacum in so large a dose was introduced, as the author informs us, by Dr. Munkley, in Guy's Hospital. The ascertainment of the particular stage of the rheumatism when it may be most advantageously exhibited, in the prescribed dose, is an object which merits the further trials of the faculty; and should the inquiry be prosecuted with as much attention and judgment as are discovered by this author, it is probable that the point would be soon determined with some degree of precision.

VI. *An Essay on the most effectual Means of preserving the Health of Seamen in the Royal Navy. And a Dissertation on Fevers and Infection. Together with Observations on the Jail Distemper, and the proper Methods of preventing and stopping its Infection. By James Lind, M. D. 8vo. 6s. Wilson and Nicol.*

THIS volume consists chiefly of treatises formerly published by the author at different times, and now much enlarged, with the additional advantage of a more methodical arrangement. In the Essay on preserving the Health of Seamen, we find a chapter relating the means of obtaining fresh water at sea, wherein the author lays claim to the important discovery of freshening sea-water by distillation. If Dr. Lind's title to this discovery be indisputable, it is really extraordinary to meet with the following passage in a certificate granted by Dr. Lind and other gentlemen, to Dr. Irving, in favour of the method introduced by him.

'We further declare to the best of our judgment, that this method is founded upon principles in distillation, new and hitherto not practised, and which we believe will afford great advantages to that art in general, as well as fully answer the end proposed of supplying ships with a sufficient quantity of sweet and wholesome water.'

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In the chapter on the Jail Distemper, the author makes a particular application to this disease, of what he had formerly related concerning febrile infection. We here find some facts, however, respecting which we cannot concur in opinion with this ingenious and intelligent physician. Passing over his theory of this disease, which is in many cases doubtful, we shall confine ourselves to the two different modes of practice which he recommends in the method of cure.

The first is, fumigating the apartments and cells of infected places with tobacco.

‘When the prisoners can be removed, the infection will most effectually be extinguished by their removal to another prison, and after thoroughly cleaning the infected out, to fumigate it with the smoke of tobacco. All smuggled tobacco, that is seized, is directed by law to be burnt; and instead of burning it, as at present in the open air, a grant might be obtained from government of a constant supply of condemned tobacco from the Custom-House to be burnt in the Savoy, Newgate, and other prisons, under the inspection of the proper revenue officers. Large fires of tobacco, when closely confined, with proper conduct, would totally destroy the infection, but it does not appear that burning of tobacco in the open yards or courts of prisons, would be of the least benefit; it should rather be burnt in the cells, and most damp unventilated places.’

We know not on what authority Dr. Lind advises this practice, but it is certain from repeated experience, that the fumes of tobacco availed neither in the plague which has raged at different times in Italy, nor among the Turks, who constantly use it; nor in the murrain of cattle, in which case it was practised in Sweden, nor, in short, so far as we know, in any instance where infection has prevailed.

Another method of practice in which we also cannot help differing from our author is, that of extinguishing infection by means of fire.

‘I am perfectly convinced, from long experience, that no infection whatever can resist the force of a close confined fire, or the heat of an oven; a degree of heat, even less than that which bakes bread, is sufficient to extinguish it, and will, at the same time, neither injure substances of linen or woollen. Strong fumigations with charcoal and sulphur, long and closely confined, will also destroy the infection wherever it is lodged, if the infected substances be well opened and exposed to them.

‘By thus cutting off all communication between the sick and the healthy, fumigating the apartments and cells with tobacco, and purifying all tainted cloaths, either by exposing them



them to the heat of an oven, or the steams of brimstone and charcoal, the most violent infection will effectually be subdued; an object of the utmost consequence in all crowded jails, and which humanity must recommend to the attention of those in direction over them.'

This method was found to be of the greatest prejudice in several places abroad, as well as in London. We shall mention only Messina, Marseilles, and Genoa.

The like effect is mentioned by Dr. Mead, on the burning of the cloaths of persons who had been infected with the small-pox, which carried the contagion to some hundred yards in the air, so as to infect others.

With respect to the baking of cloaths in an oven, we humbly conceive it to be absolutely impracticable. For the cloaths on the outside could not fail to be burnt, while the rest would not be sufficiently heated to render the contagious particles volatile; so that this method would rather fix the virus, by drying it in the mucus of the cloaths, which would immediately become active on receiving any moisture.

The other treatises here published have formerly met with approbation, and are yet further entitled to it in the improved state in which they now appear.

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VII. *The Chains of Slavery. A Work wherein the clandestine and willainous Attempts of Princes to ruin Liberty are pointed out, and the dreadful Scenes of Despotism disclosed. To which is prefixed an Address to the Electors of Great Britain, in Order to draw their timely Attention to the Choice of proper Representatives in the next Parliament.* 4to. 12s. sewed. Becket.

**M**AN in a state of nature, and entirely independent, must certainly have enjoyed a small portion of happiness. Although exempt from the artificial wants which civilization has produced, his gratifications must have been so few, and his existence on many accounts so precarious, that he could not but wish to change his situation. Societies must therefore have been early formed, and civilization has followed, although by unequal steps; but the ambition of some having stimulated them to acquire dominion over others, the *many* soon became subjected to the caprice of a *few*, in consequence of which, as avarice, pride, or other passions have prevailed, tyranny and oppression have taken place; when these have been carried to an extravagant length, the sufferers, by uniting in their own defence, have frequently brought them under proper limitations, and government has been through necessity carried on by means more conformable to the dictates of reason and justice.

tice. A struggle for power on each side has of consequence generally subsisted, and according to the share obtained by the different parties, regulations and refinements have been adopted; whence the art of government has become more complex, and the liberties of mankind have often been attacked under various specious pretences, when it could not be done openly. These arts will, probably, always be put in practice, and to point them out to mankind is an useful, and therefore laudable attempt.

This task the intelligent author of the *Chains of Slavery* has executed in a manner that will reflect credit on his abilities. He seems to have set the president Montesquieu before him as a pattern for the manner of treating his subject, and has diligently sought for examples in both ancient and modern history, of the arts by which princes have undermined public liberty; and, not confining his researches to these, has shown how far other causes, some of them intended, perhaps, to promote liberty, have proved detrimental to it.

The liberties of a nation are surrounded by dangers; the engines of slavery are constantly, though often secretly, endeavouring to destroy them. Every good citizen, therefore, watches for their preservation, and will gladly peruse maxims drawn from the experience of ages, by which he may be enabled to guard against the encroachments of tyranny.

But we proceed to particulars. —

A people who are oppressed by their rulers, are apt to launch out against them in invectives and abuse. This may certainly injure the cause it is intended to serve, not to mention that the ill humours produced by the treatment they suffer vent themselves thus to no effect. ‘When administration,’ says our author, is censured, the charges against it ought constantly to be supported by incontrovertible facts; if the subjects in a just cause make any inconsiderate step, it suffices to ruin their affairs. The prince, who at first trembled under the lash of the malcontents, while they confined themselves within the bounds of prudence, triumphs as soon as they go beyond; he complains in his turn, he prosecutes those who have handled the pen, and leaving the public grievances for his private injuries, he oftentimes succeeds in making the people lose sight of the principal object; thus the friends of liberty, who by cautious proceedings might have been victorious, lose, by a single act of imprudence the fruit of their past efforts.

‘Of this truth we have a convincing proof before us. While the author of the *North Briton* contented himself with censuring the government, with disclosing the secret views of the  
favour-



favourite, with pursuing and prosecuting him closely, he kept the ministry in perpetual alarm, and made them tremble under the lash of his spirited writings. But when he disgraced his pen by employing it in grossly aspersing the character of a certain princess, instead of attacking arbitrary power, he furnished his enemies with weapons to his own destruction.

Amongst the great variety of popular writings which have lately appeared in this kingdom, many of the ministerial arts, which are enumerated in the volume before us, have been occasionally detected. We have here information of others; some, which by distant and imperceptible steps, advance slowly towards despotism, and some which support it by flagrant acts of injustice; part of these may serve as beacons to warn men of approaching danger, while the rest may convince them to how wretched a condition those nations have been reduced who have been deprived of liberty.

But in some places the author appears to have been carried too far by his enthusiastic love of liberty, and has ranked as tyrannical acts, what had a real tendency to promote the public freedom. Of this we shall have occasion to quote one or two instances. 'To secure their power', our author justly remarks, 'princes multiply offices and dignities, but when once secured, to enlarge its boundaries they reduce the number of them.'

'Not content with being at the head of affairs, they are anxious to dispose of every thing; having filled with their creatures the high places of government, they proceed to invest in themselves all offices which share authority, or to suppress them; ever fixing their eyes on those on whom high trusts have been conferred, they wait only for an opportunity to dispossess them. When an opportunity offers not itself, they start it; they raise enemies to the high offices of the state, to charge them with negligence or misdemeanour; if they find any guilty, they utter loud complaints against these bad servants, and suppress the functions of their office, under pretence of reforming abuses.'

'To those they cannot convict of any misdemeanour, they give many causes of disgust; they make them feel the weight of authority, and artfully provoke them to furnish reasons for being dismissed, or to resign a place they can hold no longer; but great care is taken to leave these places vacant, or to grant them as commissions under pleasure only.'

'But to veil their designs, and not to discontent every one, princes substitute for offices of trust, places without authority, dignities which flatter avarice or pride, without feeding ambition,

bition, and thus secure the concerned party. Those they cannot pay with realities, they pay with promises.

‘When the prince cannot seize all offices and dignities which share authority, and vest them in the crown, he associates himself at the head of orders, corporations, tribunals, and soon usurps all their power.

‘At other times instead of suppressing offices, he lets them become extinct.

‘At length, to remain the sole master of the state, he boasts of being the father of his people, and wholly engaged with the care of promoting public happiness, he takes upon himself the management of affairs, orders his subjects to address directly his person, takes cognizance of every thing, examines every thing, and disposes of every thing. The simple multitude then beholds with admiration his air of benevolence, his attendance to public affairs, his zeal for their well-being, they expect their felicity therefrom, but perceive not that the prince conceals his ambitious designs under this outside of goodness, and seeks only to render himself independent.’

We have proofs added to support the preceding arguments; such as Edward I. uniting the jurisdiction of the dignity of an earl, which was hereditary, to that of the office of sheriff, which was during pleasure; his suppressing the office of high justice, which he considered as formidable to the crown itself, &c. but we were surprized to find amongst these proofs the following. ‘In order to divest wholly the inquisition of Portugal of its authority, Joseph de Braganza placed himself at the head of it.’

The inquisition was ever too much an object of terror to the people, for them to lament his decreasing the power of its governors, and however the inquisitors might deem it a tyrannical exertion of power, their mismanagement of their usurped authority over men’s minds caused it to be the highest justice to deprive them of power. We are confident our author is, on this head, of the same opinion with ourselves; many parts of his work breathes such a liberal spirit, as convinces us, that he detests priestcraft and religious imposition.

Now we are on the subject of religion, we shall quote a chapter written wholly on that subject, the sentiments in which every unprejudiced reader will allow to be just.

‘Every religion countenances despotism, but none so much as the Christian.

‘Instead of being connected with the political system, the Christian religion is universal in its principle; it has nothing exclusive, nothing more peculiar to any country, than to another;



other ; it embraces equally all mankind in its charity, takes away the bar which separates nations, and unites all Christians in a fraternity,—such is the true spirit of the gospel.

‘ Liberty depends on the love of the *Patria* ; but the reign of Christians is not of this world ; their *Patria* is in heaven, and to them earth is a place of pilgrimage only. How then can a people, longing but for things above, be concerned for things below ?

‘ All human institutions are grounded on human passions, and supported by them only ; the love of liberty is united to that of well-being, to that of temporal enjoyments, but the Christian doctrine inspires us with an aversion for those enjoyments, and is continually combating our terrestrial inclinations. Wholly engrossed by another life, men are but little concerned about this.

‘ To maintain themselves free, the people must have an eye ever upon government ; they must watch all its motions, oppose all its illegal attempts, and curb its audacity. How can men, whom religion prohibits being suspicious, be thus watchful ? How can they put a stop to the secret practices of the enemies to liberty ? how detect them ? how even suppose that such men exist ? Without suspicion, without cunning, without wrath, without resentment, a true Christian is at the discretion of the first who forms an attempt upon him.

‘ The spirit of the gospel is a spirit of lenity, of charity, of peace ; its disciples are full of patience, and love for their enemies. When struck on one cheek, they must offer the other ; when stripped of their gown, they must give their cloak besides ; when forced to march a league, they must march two ; when persecuted, they must bless their persecutors ; they are not allowed even to protect their own lives. Dragged to the altar of death, they have tears only to oppose to their tyrant. Ever resigned, they suffer in silence, they melt into compassion for their enemies, and pray for their executioner. Patience, tears, prayers, blessings, are their only arms, and whatever is attempted against them, they never disgrace themselves with revenge ; they groan, and humble themselves under the hand which strikes them. How then would they take up arms against the disturbers of public peace ? how combat the usurpers of their own rights ? how repel by force the enemies of liberty ? how spill their blood for the sake of their country ? To so many dispositions contrary to those of a good patriot, add the express command of obeying the supreme powers, good or bad, as being established by God.’

The supreme authority in a state is certainly lodged in those who have arms in their hands. Most princes, sensible of the

truth of this maxim, have taken the precaution of disarming their subjects; the next step to which has been the establishing of standing armies, and inspiring them with contempt for the rest of the community. We are much of our author's opinion, that quartering soldiers in barracks is highly instrumental in promoting the last mentioned purpose. 'To lodge the military in barracks is at once to divest them of that little humanity which they pick up by conversing with the honest part of the world, to corrupt them the more by their abandoned intercourse, and to qualify them for a military government.'

The schemes of oppression mentioned in this work are very numerous, and indeed the writer seems to have exhausted the subject; but however necessary it may be to acquire a knowledge of them, the study excites but gloomy reflections. We turn from it to the Address of the Electors of Great Britain, prefixed to this work, an address at once spirited and sensible, the length of which alone prevents us from inserting it in our Review. Yet as a specimen, not indeed of the writer's rhetorical talents, which are exercised in the declamatory part, but of his judgment, we shall conclude this article with an extract from his address, heartily wishing that his advice may not be given in vain.

'Reject boldly all who attempt to buy your votes; they are but mercenary suitors, who covet only to enlarge their fortune at the expence of their honour, and the interest of their country.

'Reject all who have any place at court, any employment in the disposal of the great officers of the crown, any commission which the king can improve by men thus dependent, and of which the senate is chiefly composed at present, how can you hope to be represented with fidelity?

'Reject all who earnestly mendicate your voice; there is no good to be expected from that quarter. If they had nothing at heart but the honour of serving the public, do you imagine, that they would submit to act such a disgraceful part? those humiliating intrigues are the transactions of vice, not of virtue. Merit, indeed, is fond of honourable distinctions, yet, satisfied with proving worthy to them, it never debases itself to beg them, but waits till they are offered.

'Reject men of pompous titles, among them there is little knowledge and less virtue; nay, what have they of nobility but the name, the luxuries, and the vices of it?

'Reject the insolent opulent. In this class are not to be found the few virtues which are left to stock the nation.

'Reject



' Reject young men ; no confidence is to be placed in them. Wholly given up to pleasure, in this age of degeneracy, dissipation, amusements, and debauchery, are their only occupation, and to support the expensive gaieties of the capital, they are ever ready to act with zeal in the interests of a minister. But supposing them not corrupt ; they are but little acquainted with the national interest ; besides, naturally incapable of a long-continued attention, they are impatient of restraint ; they would have nothing to do but to give their votes, and cannot attend to what they call the dry business of of the house, and fulfil the duties of a good senator.

' Select for your representatives men distinguished by their ability, integrity, and love for their country ; men versed in the national affairs ; men, whom an independent fortune secures from the temptations of poverty, and a disdain of ruinous pageantry from the allurements of ambition ; men, who have not been corrupted by the smiles of a court ; men, whose venerable mature age crowns a spotless life ; men, who have appeared zealous for the public cause, and have had in view only the welfare of their country, and the observance of the laws.

' Confine not your choice to the candidates who offer themselves ; invite men worthy of that trust ; wise men who desire to be your representatives, but cannot dispute that honour with the rich without merit, who labour by bribes to force it out of your hands. Do it in such a manner, that for the pleasure of serving their country, they shall have no occasion to dread the ruin of their fortune, and scorn even to eat or drink at prostituted tables.'

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VIII. *The History of the Revolutions of Denmark. With an Account of the Present State of that Kingdom and People.* By John Andrews, LL.D. 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. Nourse.

**A** Desire of presenting the public with an historical account of Denmark, at a time when the events in that kingdom attracted the general attention of Europe, was the author's professed motive for engaging in this History ; a work which stands in need of no temporary circumstances to render it acceptable, and deserves to be considered, though not as a copious, yet as an elegant history of that country. The author has judiciously avoided the detail of uninteresting transactions, and restricted his narration chiefly to those that are important. At the same time, however, the reader is gratified with much more than the account of mere Revolutions ; for we here find a compendious history of Denmark from the earliest period of its authentic annals to the present age,

No kingdom could boast of more warlike achievements, or more extensive dominions, in former times, than Denmark. During the ninth and tenth centuries it was the terror of all the northern parts of Europe; and England in particular felt the power of its invincible arms. Denmark, like the once flourishing Spanish monarchy, retains little of its former grandeur; but its internal prosperity, as happened to the latter, has not degenerated with its magnificence. In commerce, industry, and wholesome legislation, it has improved, not diminished, since the reduction of its ancient sway.

The History begins at the time of Canute, surnamed the Great, who reigned some time before and after the conclusion of the tenth century; a prince, whose martial and political character the author justly represents in a favourable light. At different periods, sometimes in successive reigns, these annals exhibit other Danish monarchs not inferior to their illustrious predecessor. Among them is queen Margaret, a princess who flourished in the fourteenth century, and who may vie in her political capacity with our great Elizabeth. We shall lay before our readers an extract from the history of this female sovereign.

‘ That transaction which has rendered her name most famous, is the celebrated treaty of perpetual union, agreed upon between the three nations at Calmar. Margaret, whose capacious mind was ever intent on great designs, projected this conjunction between them, as the most certain measure to insure their future peace and grandeur. Had the foundation on which she erected this vast edifice remained unshaken, her intentions would have been completely answered, and she would have had the glory of founding an empire which, in all probability, would have given laws to all the North. The regulations she framed for this purpose, tended to preserve to each of the three nations their divers laws, and independency of each other in such a manner that, while they were under the obedience and direction of one single sovereign, still no kind of innovation was to have been made in the systems of their respective governments; and the chief consequence of their union under one head, would have been the safety and prosperity of the whole.

‘ This was certainly a noble and extensive plan; but as ambition had chiefly prompted Margaret to this great undertaking, when she had been so fortunate as to carry it into execution, she could not restrain the desire of ruling without controul, and extended her authority much beyond its legal bounds. As she was, however, endowed with uncommon prudence,



dence, she carried the exercise of her power no farther than she was conscious of her ability to maintain it. She was careful, at the same time, to procure herself a number of abettors and well-wishers, by her munificence and liberality to those on whom she thought she could place a well-grounded reliance. As she knew the Norwegians and the Danes, these last in particular, were her surest friends and adherents, she loaded them with every mark of confidence and favour. In this respect she forgot her usual discretion, and was far too open and unguarded in her preference of them to the Swedes; whose jealousy was highly excited on this account, the more, indeed, as the queen, in the fulness of her power, did not scruple to infringe some of the most essential articles of the union entered into at Calmar, by investing a great number of the Danish nobility with places of trust and profit in Sweden. This was so direct and manifest a violation of that treaty, that the Swedish nobles assembled in a body, and laid a formal complaint of this infraction before the queen. But Margaret, whose policy went hand in hand with her ambition, had taken no measures but what she knew herself in a condition to enforce against all opposition. Though she was conscious her behaviour was not justifiable, yet the loftiness of her spirit disdained to enter into any expostulation with the Swedish nobility. She met the deputation with an intrepidity and a resolution that surprised and silenced them. She told them sneeringly, to be as watchful over their rights and privileges, as she intended to be over the places in her possession. The truth was, she had gradually, under various plausible pretences, made herself mistress of almost all the fortresses and strong holds in Sweden: and was, therefore, but little concerned at the discontents expressed by the nobility.

But beside the power which was lodged in her hands by these means, she had also been careful to raise herself a no less effectual support by her generosity to the clergy. She lived in an age when their concurrence was indispensably needed by all princes who meant to acquire and preserve authority. The influence of the clergy, in the kingdom of Sweden, was prodigiously extensive, through the immense riches and prerogatives annexed to their dignity, which eclipsed all other orders in the realm, and was a severe and heavy check even on the crown itself. A person of Margaret's keen penetration, could not, therefore, but be fully aware of the necessity of living upon good terms with so numerous and so powerful a body of men. She caressed them accordingly, in a most extraordinary manner. She increased their revenues; she promoted them to places of the greatest importance; she took them into her

strictest intimacy. She treated them, in short, with every mark of the utmost confidence and predilection.

Her intentions were amply fulfilled by this conduct. The clergy attached themselves closely to her. They seconded all her views, and remained firmly united to her interests; which, indeed, were their own. Emboldened by the weight which their adherence threw into the scale of the crown, she studied the extension of the royal prerogative with so much success, that no sovereign in either of the three kingdoms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, had ever enjoyed so great a share of absolute supremacy.

It ought, at the same time to be confessed, that, notwithstanding the ambitious and aspiring disposition of Margaret, she made the power she was so eager to possess, subservient to the good of her people. She rectified numberless abuses; she enacted excellent laws in favour of the commercial and industrious classes; she encouraged the trade between Denmark and its neighbours, the hanse towns especially, by such wise and judicious regulations, that many of them subsist to this day. She introduced a regularity in the administration of justice unknown till her time. She obliged all orders of men to submit to the decisions of her courts of judicature; and was particularly careful to protect the lower ranks from the oppression and ill usage of the great. On these chiefly the weight of her power fell; and they of course made the loudest complaints; as, by resuming the castles and fortresses of which they had possessed themselves, during the civil disturbances, she deprived them of the means of becoming more considerable than was consistent with the general welfare of the community. Certain it is the nobility had availed itself of the public calamities, to attain to a degree of power utterly incompatible with the condition of subjects. It was not, therefore, surprising, that Margaret should labour to diminish an influence, which, while it existed, rendered her situation precarious and dependent on the pleasure of that body of men.

To sum up the character of this celebrated queen, she rose to a throne through her superior abilities. She governed with a spirit and wisdom that equalled her reputation to that of the greatest princes we read of in history. She united three warlike nations, hitherto sworn enemies to each other. She brought them to an obedience to her person, which the most powerful of their respective monarchs had never been able to compass. She ruled them all three with uninterrupted authority. She lived respected by all her subjects, and dreaded by all her neighbours; and died in the midst of honours and felicities; leaving behind her a name so truly and so uncommonly



commonly glorious, that the unanimous consent of the European nations has dignified her with the illustrious appellation of Semiramis of the North.'

The author has drawn the character of Christian II. in just and striking colours.

'Christian II. succeeded his father John. He was a prince of a passionate and ferocious temper : full of pride and haughtiness ; of a suspicious and dark disposition ; implacable in his enmity, and carrying his resentment to the most dreadful extremities. Inheriting the pretensions of his family to the crown of Sweden, he prepared to assert them with that violence and impetuosity which characterised all his actions. He wanted neither courage nor skill in the management of affairs, and his vigilance and activity were indefatigable. But his ambition had nothing of that heroism that so often throws a lustre on the most unjust undertakings. It was accompanied with an austerity and unfeelingness that shewed him prompted by the mere lust of power and thirst of revenge.'

This prince is almost the only Danish monarch that ever became obnoxious to his own subjects ; and the fate he incurred affords an instance of the great spirit of liberty which formerly prevailed in that kingdom. He was solemnly deposed by an unanimous decree of the states.

The grandeur of Denmark suffered a great revolution in the reign of Christian IV. who, after an unsuccessful war, was forced to cede to Sweden the large provinces of Halland, Jemterland, and Herdalen, with the important island of Gothland. This prince, however, compensated for his misfortunes in war, by the most vigilant attention to the domestic prosperity of his country, and he is justly regarded as one of the most excellent princes that have filled the Danish throne. We are persuaded that we shall gratify our readers by presenting them with the historian's elegant revival of the character of this monarch.

'To sum up the character of this celebrated prince, it may be said, that though far from indebted to any peculiar smiles of fortune, yet he was one of the most deserving potentates in his time. His whole reign, which was the longest in the Danish history, offers an almost uninterrupted chain of important transactions. Many were the undertakings he projected and patronized for the prosperity of his country : many were the councils and determinations he engaged in for the honour of his crown : whatever could conduce to these purposes was ever uppermost in his mind. Notwithstanding his reign was marked with many unprosperous events, yet his character stood the test of ill fortune, and always shone superiour to

adversity : unmoved and stedfast in the pursuits of what he thought was proper and worthy of him, he behaved to the last with invincible spirit and vigour, and died with the reputation annexed to those who fill their station with dignity.

• Denmark, for a long time, flourished remarkably under his administration ; and though he might, on the whole, be accounted rather unfortunate in his enterprizes abroad, yet his people were equitable enough to distinguish between the propriety of the plans he entered upon, and the ill success that might attend them ; well knowing that whenever he failed, it was seldom for want of having acted with the judgment and precaution sufficient to have deserved better fortune.

• In consequence of the good opinion his subjects universally entertained of him, he never found them backward in concurring with, and forwarding all his designs to the utmost of their power. His demands from the states were respectfully complied with ; and not only the taxes imposed by the public authority were chearfully paid, but whenever any sudden exigence arose, he was always sure of instantly meeting with the most cordial and ready supplies from every rank and condition ; each town and corporation shewing the utmost alacrity, and advancing for his service as considerable sums as they were able to raise.

• As a return for these continual proofs of loyalty and affection, no Danish monarch ever strove with more zeal to deserve them. Bounded by the laws in the extent and execution of his power, he never aimed at rescinding any which he deemed beneficial to the community ; and his influence, tho' great, was never employed for any purposes of oppression. The only use he made of the ascendancy he possessed over the minds of his people, was to induce the prosecution of such measures as tended, in his opinion, to promote their interest or their glory. No sovereign ever did more to animate his subjects by the force of his own example. He chearfully bore an ample share of every burden in common with them, and was ever forward in exposing his person to all manner of toils and dangers.

• By persevering invariably in this conduct he acquired a name which is held in the highest veneration by the Danes, who seem unanimously inclined to prefer him to any of his successors, as uniting, in a much more conspicuous degree, the virtues of a good king with the qualifications of a hero. He remains, in short, the favourite object of their remembrance ; and is mentioned as a prince whose example is highly worthy of imitation by such of his rank as wish to merit the unfeigned attachment of their subjects.'

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In our next Review, we shall conclude the account of this work, which, besides the history, contains a full, distinct, and judicious representation of the political state of Denmark.

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IX. *An Inquiry into the Practice of Imprisonment for Debt, and a Refutation of Mr. James Stephen's Doctrine. To which is added, A Hint for Relief of both Creditor and Debtor,* 8vo. 1s. Towers.

THE diligent author of this pamphlet has taken a deal of pains to refute the positions advanced by Mr. James Stephen in his late pamphlet relative to the practice of imprisoning debtors, viz. that the said practice is contrary to common law, Magna Charta, and statute law. That he has succeeded, appears evidently by the authorities produced in support of his opinion.

Having had occasion to look very far back into the history of this country, he has gone still further, and considered the formation of society, in which he thinks that 'people unite more from the accident of living in the same family than from any notion of advantage, convenience, or order. This gives the head jurisdictional right over his family; and the authority which was the result of his manhood, is still continued in the advance of life by affection and respect.

'In process of time, when many families reside near one another, the head of one family, either from wisdom or force, will become superior to the others; and from hence will proceed a natural authority, which must be supported by the same spirit which acquired it, and thus we shall find commonwealths as well as regalities originate.'

We are not wholly of our author's opinion on this head. The wants and different tempers of men must, in the early ages of the world, have occasioned injustice and animosity; the resource of the weak and the peaceable consisted in their union against the few who disturbed their tranquillity; and societies, in our opinion, originated in this manner. But we shall wave the further prosecution of this argument, and proceed to the matter more particularly in question.

In order to prove that the forty-ninth article of Magna Charta, when applied to the Saxon government, cannot refer to cases of imprisonment for debt, he points out the state of merchandize in the time of our Saxon ancestors, by which it appears probable, that such contracts as debts could then scarcely exist. 'Merchandize was at that time in an infantine state, yet not wholly unencouraged, as appears by the laws of Athelstan, "That if a merchant so thrived, that he had passed

passed thrice over the broad sea, by his own craft, he was thenceforth a thane right worthy." By which it appears, that those only were considered as merchants, who hazarded themselves in distant voyages with the produce of their country, and returned with what their country stood in need of, which most undoubtedly is the true idea of merchandize.

By the bye, if that only be the true idea of merchandize, that merchants should themselves carry their merchandize to other countries, and exchange them for different commodities; it may with equal propriety be asserted that the only true idea of monarchical government is, that kings should personally execute justice throughout their dominions. Surely a government is not the less monarchical, because justice (or the law) is executed by deputies appointed by the king; nor is our idea of merchandize less true, because merchants transact their business by deputies or agents, who act in their name, and by their appointment.

After considering the very imperfect state of commerce in England immediately after the Conquest, our author mentions that 'the first trace of private debts is found in the fifteenth article of the Constitutions of Clarendon, instituted at a great council, the 10th of Henry II. where it is declared, that pleas concerning debts, which are owing upon simple promise, or without promise, shall be within the justice (or court) of our lord the king. Here there plainly appears a foundation for the jurisdiction of the King's-Bench in pleas of debt. However, so little was private credit in use, that among the eleven articles of inquiry given to the commissioners, appointed to examine into the abuses of sheriffs and their officers in 1170, we do not find either of these articles refer to any abuse in arresting debtors; and surely, if the sheriffs and their officers exceeded their authority, and oppressed the people in almost every other, it would have been next to a miracle if they had never exceeded their lawful bounds in this instance.

'The next reign affords no matter to elucidate this subject, nor doth the reign of king John furnish us with any materials till the æra of Magna Charta at Runnymede; a glorious achievement, purchased with much blood and treasure, and highly worthy of the heroes through whose efforts it was obtained.

'Thus then it appears by tracing the various jurisdictions, by considering the several codes of laws, and by inquiring into the state of commerce at that period, that the 49th article of Magna Charta (which I will readily join with Mr. Stephen in dignifying with the title of "The boast and glory of our excellent constitution," could not, did not, nor ever was in-



tended to extend to imprisonment for private debt; credit being most clearly subsequent and not antecedent, to the period of obtaining this charter.'

Perhaps our author's warmth in defence of his own side of the question here carries him too far. That the 49th article of Magna Charta, viz. 'No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned, or be disseised of his free tenement, or liberty, or free customs, or outlawed, or banished, or any way destroyed, nor will we pass upon him, or commit him to prison, unless by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land,' did not extend to imprisonment for private debts, we believe; but that it could not, because credit was not antecedent to the period of obtaining this charter, is by no means evident, since, according to this writer's own testimony, private credit did exist so long prior to that period as the 10th of Henry II.

Mr. Stephen having denied that any of the laws of England had authorised imprisonment for debt, the writer of the present pamphlet proceeds to prove the contrary of this to be the case; and this he does very evidently. Speaking of the statute of Aſton Burnell, 11 Edw. I. (which empowers the mayor of London, York, or Bristol to cause the moveables of a debtor to be sold as far as the debt amounts, and to pay the money arising from the sale to the creditor), Mr. Stephen has declared that this is 'the only *legal* practice to recover debts', adding that 'it is worthy of notice that the *body* is not in the least mentioned.' This is, however, so far from being the truth, that the act proceeds thus: "If the debtor have no moveables whereupon the debt may be levied, then shall his *body* be taken, where it may be found, and kept in prison until that he hath made agreement or his friends for him.

"And if he have not wherewith that he may sustain himself in prison, the creditor shall find him *bread* and *water*, to the end he die not for want of sustenance, the expence of which the debtor shall *repay*, together with his debt, before he be discharged from prison."

Other instances are also here pointed out which prove the practice of imprisonment for debt to be legal, particularly as Mr. Stephen has urged that he hoped none would 'dare to quote any authority of law, but what is consistent with the great charter, in defence of their iniquitous practices of confining poor insolvent debtors, unless they can shew subsequent authority to the petition of right.' Our author produces the following passage from the Habeas Corpus Act; an act procured for the especial purpose of securing the liberty of the subject, and subsequent to the petition of right, "Provided  
always

always that nothing in this act shall extend to discharge out of prison any person charged in debt, or other action, or with process in any civil cause; but that after he shall be discharged of his imprisonment for such his criminal offence, he shall be kept in custody, according to law, for such other suit," which fully evinces that imprisonment for debt is not contrary to statute law.

Although our author has taken so much pains to disprove Mr. Stephen's assertions, he is still so far a friend to universal liberty, as to wish that some other mode for recovering debts could be contrived, rather than that of confining debtors in a prison. He proposes for this purpose that 'the bankrupt-laws be extended to men whose principal debts are only twenty pounds, and let the courts of conscience be authorized to proceed on all debts under twenty pounds.' But although this might obviate in some measure the evil complained of, it would perhaps be a great encouragement to knavery and extravagance amongst some whom the dread of a prison keeps within bounds. Something is certainly wanted still more efficacious, in order to alleviate the misfortune of deserving men, who may, through no fault of their own, become insolvent, while the rigour of imprisonment is no more than what those who have been wantonly extravagant deserve.

X. *Select Letters on the Trade and Government of America; and the Principles of Law and Polity, applied to the American Colonies. Written by Governor Bernard at Boston, in the Years 1763, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8. Now first published: To which are added, the Petition of the Assembly of the Massachusetts-Bay against the Governor, his Answer thereto, and the Order of the King in Council thereon.* 8vo. 2s. Payne.

THE political affairs of our American colonies are at present so much embroiled, and the minds of the colonists so much prejudiced, that these Letters will probably meet with a less candid reception on the other side of the water than is their due. If (as there seems no reason to doubt of it) the letters now published are genuine copies of those written by governor Bernard, that gentleman was really much less an enemy to the cause of the Americans than has been represented, and the publication of them will of course be of advantage to his reputation.

The first and second Letters, dated in 1763, are written with an intention to excuse some indulgences, to which the people at Boston were accustomed, viz. one in the neglect of the molasses act, and another in the permission for Lisbon lemons, and



and wines in small quantities to be imported as ship's stores. 'I have always understood, says the governor, that this was well known in England, and allowed as being no object of trade, or, if it was, no ways injurious to that of Great Britain. As for lemons, in this climate they are not only necessary to the comfort of life, but to health also; and a prohibition of them would be a great mortification to those who have been accustomed to the use of them. For my own part, I reckon them among the necessaries of life, and believe they contribute much to the good health I enjoy here.' If the concluding reason had been omitted, it would, in our opinion, have been of no detriment to the cause, as it was natural for the lords commissioners to believe that the good governor's relish for wines and Lisbon lemons had some share in exciting him to excuse the importation of those articles.

In 1764, Governor Bernard sent over a copy of a petition of the council and the house of representatives of Massachusetts Bay to the house of commons of Great Britain, relative to the orders given for the strict execution of the molasses act, and some other regulations. He pleaded the cause of the petitioners in his letter at that time with some earnestness, and, we are willing to believe, with a desire to serve them, exclusive of any private interest in the business.

In June 1764. He sent over copies of his system of law and polity applied to the American colonies, which met with no favourable reception here. From this piece it appears, that governor Bernard was of opinion, that, 'the parliament of Great Britain, as well from its rights of sovereignty, as from occasional exigences, has a right to make laws for, and impose taxes upon its subjects in its external dominions, although they are not represented in such parliament. But—taxes imposed upon the external dominions ought to be applied to the use of the people from whom they are raised.'

'A representation of the American colonies in the imperial legislature is not necessary to establish the authority of the parliament over the colonies. But it may be expedient for quieting disputes concerning such authority, and preventing a separation in future times.

'There is no government in America at present whose powers are properly balanced; there not being in any of them a real and distinct third legislative power, mediating between the king and the people, which is the peculiar excellence of the British constitution. The want of such a third legislative power adds weight to the popular, and lightens the royal scale, so as to destroy the balance between the royal and popular powers. Although America is not now (and probably  
will

will not be for many years to come) ripe enough for an hereditary nobility; yet it is now capable of a nobility for life. A nobility appointed by the king for life, and made independent, would probably give strength and stability to the American governments, as effectually as an hereditary nobility does to that of Great Britain. The reformation of the American governments should not be controlled by the present boundaries of the colonies, as they were mostly settled upon partial, occasional, and accidental considerations, without any regard to a whole. To settle the American governments to the greatest possible advantage, it will be necessary to reduce the number of them, in some places to unite and consolidate; in others to separate and transfer; and in general to divide by natural boundaries instead of imaginary lines.'

Whether or not the creating a nobility in America would be serviceable to the peace of the community, admits of much doubt: we are of opinion that it would operate very little.

Concerning the petition of the assembly of Massachusetts Bay, there are in it marks of partiality in judging of the governor's proceedings, for proofs of which we must refer to his answer annexed, by which it appears, that those of his acts which gave the complainants most cause for dissatisfaction were in obedience to the express orders he received from England.

XI. *The Advantages of an Alliance with the Great Mogul: By John Morrison, Esq. General and Commander in Chief of the Great Mogul's Forces; Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to his Majesty George III. King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.*

**I**N the present situation of national affairs, the subjects treated of in the publication before us, appear highly deserving of the most serious consideration; more especially as repeated experience must bring it home to every man's conviction, how impossible it is that the trade of the East India Company should hold out much longer under the present encreasing complication of disorders. A declining commerce, an empty treasury, with almost uninterrupted war and devastation, cannot fail soon to precipitate their downfall, which would prove an event more pernicious than even the destruction of the South Sea Company formerly did to this nation.

After some very sensible preliminary observations, Mr. Morrison proceeds, in a concise, perspicuous manner, to give the great lines of the mogul's history, with a general view of the state of the empire of Hindostan, from Aurungzebe to the present



sent times. He then lays before us his own motives for engaging in this very uncommon and interesting embassy, together with his correspondence on this subject with the governors and commanders in chief at Bengal; through the whole of which we perceive a very honourable conduct, with an uncommon degree of perseverance in his endeavours to accomplish a very important and a very laudable object.

Having introduced the reader to the knowledge of the present state of Hindostan, which appeared necessary to illustrate the nature and advantages of the proposed alliance, he proceeds to state the proposals which he is empowered by his credentials to offer from the mogul to his Britannic majesty, as comprehended in the four following articles, which in the sequel he more amply enlarges upon.

‘ 1st, Shah Allum proposes immediately to invest his Britannic majesty, his heirs and successors, with the absolute sovereignty of the kingdom of Bengal, and the provinces of Behar and Orissa.

‘ 2dly, He proposes also eventually to invest his majesty with the sovereignty of part of the Decan, and the Concan, which will unite in one great compact body, the British settlements in Hindostan.

‘ 3dly, He will give the English East India Company permission to establish factories in any part of his empire, which, when tranquillity is restored in consequence of the proposed treaty, must not only promote a vast consumption of British commodities in Hindostan, but also supply the caravans from Candahar, Cachemire, Tibet, and other places in Persia and Tartary, with woollen cloths, and other European articles, which are well adapted for those northern latitudes.

‘ 4thly, Shah Allum, in return, wishes only for the friendship of the king of Great Britain, and a certain number of British officers to discipline and command his troops, with a proper supply from the Company of all kinds of military stores, in lieu of the arrears of his revenue as settled by the treaty of 1765.’

These advantages appear certainly very great; and the fourth article, in consideration of which the mogul is to grant the preceding ones, seems to be the very circumstance which secures the durability of the whole; because the mogul’s army being, according to this plan, under the command of British officers, must effectually guard against any danger that might be apprehended from a change of sentiments in the present or any succeeding emperor.

The facts in general upon which Mr. Morrison proceeds, appear to be exceedingly well founded, and his conclusions sufficiently warranted from what experience has already taught us; whilst his propositions not only have utility, expediency, and even necessity to recommend them, but are supported by every idea of humanity and justice; as war, extravagance, and distress must, in all probability, soon give way to peace, œconomy, and an extensive and beneficial trade.

There are many judicious reflections interspersed through the whole, but none more striking than those which he offers in relation

lation to the impossibility of restoring the trade of the Company's provinces, by the late or indeed any regulations they can possibly make, unless tranquillity is established throughout the whole empire.

' The trade of every country, he observes, can flourish only in proportion to the situation of those states which surround it. The riches and commerce of one nation derives its principal supplies from the riches and commerce of its neighbours; and no people can ever carry their trade and industry very far, where the adjacent districts are the scenes of barbarism, plunder, and carnage.

' Bengal, Behar, and Orissa are possessed of no mines: their former riches therefore flowed entirely from their trade with the surrounding and more distant provinces of the empire: it was this trade which enabled Bengal alone before the Persian invasion to remit to the emperor's treasury a tribute of 100 lacks, besides the immense sums the Soubas and Dewans reserved for themselves; and to the loss of this trade, together with the other never-failing attendants upon anarchy and war, is it owing that the revenues are now hastening fast to a total decline.

' It is evident, therefore, that even the profoundest peace, and the most salutary regulations in the Company's provinces alone, never can recover that wealth and that trade which they have lost, unless the same tranquillity is extended to every corner of the empire: for should Great Britain still look on with an eye of indifference, whilst Hyder Ali is destroying a number of little states on the Malabar coast, whilst the Mahrattors and Abdallah are either laying waste or threatening with desolation the provinces to the north and west, all external commerce but that to Europe must totally cease; and the trade being then confined entirely to internal barter, so far from offering a probability of advantage to the Company, must throw the balance so much against her, as evidently to make it in a little while too ruinous to support.'

After stating then in a summary way the great decrease of the Company's revenue from the year 1766, with the enormous increase, at the same time, of their expences, he urges the expediency of the parliament and the company going hand in hand to take effectual steps to ward off the impending blow; and then from the premises he draws the following conclusions.

' 1st, That the English East India Company cannot exist under the present system of government.

' 2dly, That the establishment of a general tranquillity only can restore the commerce of Hindostan, and give permanency to the British trade.

' 3dly, That a great alliance is the only possible measure that can accomplish this important end.

' 4thly, That no alliance can promise any lasting advantage, or give a real legality to our proceedings, excepting that with the Great Mogul.'

To insert all that is worthy of attention in this publication, would greatly exceed our limits; we therefore recommend the perusal of it to every man who interests himself in the welfare of his country.



## FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

12. *Traité sur l'Equitation, avec une Traduction du Traité de la Cavallerie de Xenophon. Par M. Du Paty de Clam, Membre de l'Académie des Sciences de Bordeaux. 12mo. Paris.*

According to this writer, the art of horsemanship is still in its infancy, since hitherto it has been entirely left to vulgar practice, or vague and arbitrary systems, and consequently never yet marched by the light of science. This defect he attempts to reform, by joining the labours of the closet to his exercises on horseback, and by calling physics, mathematics, and anatomy to the direction and assistance of both man and horse; in his own practice at least. Thus, says he, equitation occupies me in my cabinet; it is become a science for me; when by some accident I am precluded from its practice, I can yet make new discoveries in its theory; and though the route I keep shocks the prejudices of equestrians, I shall always pursue it with constancy.

We cannot, indeed, disapprove of his zeal and enthusiasm for that noble art. In spite of accidents and weather it will provide him with constant and delightful employment; precluding the inroads of the spleen, and the listlessness incident to an indolent or a sedentary life. His ardour may also contribute something towards the improvement of the head and heart of riders, and to the preservation of their horses.

13. *Le petit Cabinet de l'Histoire Naturelle, ou Manuel du Naturaliste. Ouvrage utile aux Voyageurs & à ceux qui visitent les Cabinets d'Histoire Naturelle & de Curiosités. 8vo. Paris.*

A concise, perspicuous, and useful description of animals, vegetables, and minerals, with their properties and use: to which an alphabetical index of their French and Latin names, and a geographical account of their various native countries and places are subjoined, in order to enable curious travellers to know the productions of distant climes.

14. *Gnomonique mise à la portée de tout le Monde, ou Méthode simple et aisée pour tracer des Cadres solaires. Par Joseph Blaise Garnier. A Marseille. 8vo.*

Except a few pages of discourse, containing general principles, the whole of this volume consists of tables and calculations.

15. *Anacreon, Sappho, Bion et Moschus: Traduction nouvelle ne Prose, suivie de la veillée des Fêtes de Vénus et d'un Choix de Pièces de differens Auteurs. Par M. M. C. 8vo. (with plates). Paris.*

These translations appear to be faithful and elegant; the collection judicious; and the edition is decorated with plates invented by the celebrated Mr. Eisen.

16. *Tableau Chronologique des Ouvrages et des principales Découvertes d'Anatomie et de Chirurgie, par Ordre des Matières, pour servir de Table et de Supplément à l'Histoire de ces deux Sciences, avec un Index de tous les Auteurs qui y ont été cités. Par M. Portal, Lecteur du Roi et Professeur de Médecine au Collège Royal de France, &c. 2 vols. 8vo. Paris.*

Mr. Portal has published an History of Anatomy and Surgery, in five volumes: by his plan he had been induced frequently to join, in the same extract, accounts of discoveries that bore no relation

lation to each other, merely because they had been made by the same author. Thus that very useful and interesting work, was, as he acknowledges himself, become the history of anatomists, rather than that of anatomy.

In order to remedy this inconveniency, and supply the other deficiencies of that work, he has here presented his readers with very minute and accurate chronological tables of anatomical discoveries, digested under their respective heads; together with complete indexes, and the supplements necessary to the whole.

17. *Lettres Nouvelles ou nouvellement recouvrées, de la Marquise de Sévigné, et de la Marquise de Simiane sa petite Fille. Pour servir de Suite aux différentes Editions des Lettres de la Marquise de Sévigné.* Paris.

The Letters of madame de Sévigné are generally known, and have always been admired as a model of epistolary composition. We may therefore content ourselves with observing, that this present collection bears the marks of authenticity.

18. *Traité des Maladies Chirurgicales et des Operations qui leur conviennent. Ouvrage posthume de M. J. L. Petit, de l'Academie Royale des Sciences, &c. mis au jour par M. Lesne, Ancien Prévôt du College, &c. 3 vols. 8vo. (with 90 figures).*

Mr. Petit is admitted to have been one of the ablest surgeons of his age; and this work of so great a practitioner has been published and enriched by its editor, with a well written and instructive introduction.

19. *Précis des Recherches faites en France depuis l'Année 1730, pour la Détermination des Longitudes en Mer par la Mesure artificielle du Temps. Par M. le Roi, Horloger du Roi. 4to. Paris.*

20. *Eclaircissements sur l'Invention, la Théorie, la Construction, et les Epreuves des nouvelles Machines proposées en France, pour la Détermination des Longitudes en Mer par la Mesure du Temps, servant de suite à l'Essai sur l'Horlogerie et au Traité des Horloges Marines, et de Réponse au Précis, &c. Par M. Ferdinand Berthoud, Horloger Mechanicien du Roi et de la Marine. 4to. Paris.*

From this dispute of two great competitors, whose moderation will insure them a general esteem, artists may probably derive new lights, and society some advantage.

21. *Avis à mes Concitoyens, ou Essai sur la Fievre Milliaire, suivi de plusieurs Observations intéressantes sur la même Maladie. Par M. Gastellier, Médecin à Montargis. 12mo. Paris.*

Giving an explicit account of the diagnostics, prognostics, and method of cure in a very fatal disease.

22. *Dictionnaire des Voyages, contenant ce qu'il-y-a de plus remarquable, de plus utile, et de mieux avéré, dans les pays où les Voyageurs ont pénétré, touchant leur Situation, leur Etendue, leurs Limites, leur Climat, leur Terroir, leur Productions; leur principales Villes, &c. Avec leurs Mœurs & les Usages des Habitans, leur Religion, leur Gouvernement, les Arts, leurs Sciences, & leur Commerce, &c. &c. vol. I—IV. A—G. 12mo. Paris.*

The most interesting observations made in a great variety of voyages and travels in Asia, Africa, and America, appear in this work, collected, compared, and alphabetically digested under their several heads.



23. *Fables Orientales, Poesies diverses, &c. Par M. Brét.* 3 vols. 12mo. Deux Ponts & Paris.

The first volume contains fifty-two fables, most of them borrowed from the Persian poet Saadi, whose life is prefixed to them; and an ingenious poem, 'Essai d'une Poétique à la Mode.' The second consists of a comedy in five acts, in verse, 'Le Protecteur Bourgeois, ou la Confiance trahie,' and two moral and dramatic tales. The third volume presents us with many sensible and judicious reflections on literature, on the manners, the conduct, and the situation of men of learning.

24. *La Pariséide, ou Paris dans les Gaules, en 2. parties. Par M. d'Aucourt, Fermier general.* 2 vols. 8vo. (with Plates.) Paris.

According to some old traditions, or to the authorities of etymologists and antiquaries equally respectable, the city of Paris was founded by the famous Trojan prince Paris; and on this foundation M. d'Aucourt has raised an interesting and very elegant poetical novel, in twelve books, in which he rehearses the adventures of the Trojan hero, in Gaul, and gives a very lively picture of the manners of the French.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### P O L I T I C A L.

25. *Principles of Trade.* 4to. 2s. Brotherton.

**I**N this pamphlet are contained some very sensible observations on bounties, coin, and paper credit. The author argues for bounties, especially on corn; is a great friend to paper credit, but does not give us sufficient reasons for an opinion he starts relative to coin, that the unit or standard ought to be in the scarcer metal. We are surprised that a sensible man should indulge in such an affectation of misspelling so many words, *al, comodity, sal, stil, folow*; and this extends to the absurdity of using words in one meaning, which have, when rightly spelt, a signification entirely different, as *needles* for *needless*.

26. *Letter to Governor Pownall, on the high Price of Bread.* 8vo. 1s. Pridden.

A catchpenny of twenty-two pages, loosely printed, which contains not twenty-two lines of information.

27. *An Address to the Artists and Manufacturers of Great Britain, by W. Kenrick, LL. D.* 4to. 2s. Domville.

The great purport of this well-written pamphlet is to persuade artists, and the authors of mechanic inventions, to agree in an application to parliament for an exclusive right to such inventions. The author's reasoning is acute, and some of his observations convincing. He has, however, one remark which deserves reprehension: 'Of the petty premiums presented by the Societies for the Encouragement of Arts and Manufactures,

supported by popular subscription, I shall say but little, as indeed but little is to be said. Instituted on public spirited principles, but perverted by private cabals, the laudable purposes of their institution have been seldom attained.'—Is there any society, meeting, or popular assembly in the world, where cabals will not arise? Though in some instances premiums may have been perverted, yet in a far greater number they are justly and judiciously adjudged.

## C O N T R O V E R S I A L.

28. *Arcana: or the Principles of the late Petitioners to Parliament for Relief in the Matter of Subscription. In VIII. Letters to a Friend. 8vo. 2s. Dilly.*

This writer treats of the following subjects; Candor in Controversy, Uniformity in Religion, The Right of private Judgment, Civil Magistracy, Innovation, Orthodoxy, Persecution, and Sophistry.

He intitles his Letters the Principles of the Petitioners; because they contain what he takes to be the real sentiments of the petitioners.

He also styles them Arcana; 'not, as he expresses himself, because the gentlemen concerned in petitioning have kept them so; but because people seem not to have taken sufficient care to understand what they have published, and therefore plead for and against they know not what.'

In this publication he does not attempt to give us an accurate explanation of the principles of the petitioners; but only some cursory remarks in favour of religious liberty, moderation and candor in controversy, the impossibility of compelling all mankind to embrace the same religious opinions, the absurdity and iniquity of persecution, &c.

From these Letters the author appears to be a person of liberal sentiments and extensive reading.

29. *An Attempt to State in a short, plain, and impartial Manner, the principal Arguments, which have been used in the Controversy betwixt the Church of England and Protestant Dissenters. 4to. 1s. Dilly.*

The chief objections, which have been made by Protestant dissenters to the church of England, relate to the following points: viz. baptism, confirmation, kneeling at the sacrament, Athanasius's creed, burial office, episcopacy, canonical obedience, and the twentieth article.

The author of this pamphlet states the objections, and subjoins an abridgment of the answers, which have been given by some of our principal controversial writers, in favour of the church of England.



30. *An Answer to a Pamphlet, Entituled, Considerations on the Propriety of requiring a Subscription to Articles of Faith.* 8vo. 1s. Rivington.

This pamphlet, if we are not deceived by a similarity of style and manner, is written by the president of Corpus Christi College, Oxford\*. In the controversy relating to subscriptions, we have had some former publications by the same hand. Our readers therefore are not unacquainted either with his religious notions, or his *controversial talents*.

31. *Sentiments for Free Devotion, addressed to the Dissenters, especially to the Dissenting Advocates for Liturgies.* 12mo. 1s. Buckland.

The author of this tract is an advocate for free devotion, or extempore prayer. But his arguments are easily obviated. For instance; 'it is not to be supposed, he says, that a man prays, because he has a book before him, and follows the minister.'—Granted. But several reasons may be given, why a man, who has a book before him, is more likely to mind his devotion, and pray with sincerity and fervor, than one who is only a hearer of the minister.

The author alledges, that forms of prayer suppress every aspiring thought which may arise, and check the very spirit and life of devotion.—This is his principal argument. In answer to which it may be observed, that established forms may be expressed with the utmost propriety and pathos; and will infallibly prevent all rambling, ludicrous, nonsensical, and impertinent effusions.

32. *Queries relating to the Book of Common Prayer, &c. with proposed Amendments. Addressed to those in Authority, and submitted to their Consideration.* 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

Several parts of our Liturgy certainly want emendation. Improperities of various kinds have been pointed out by different writers. The author of this tract submits a great number of queries, concerning points which he thinks exceptionable in our Common Prayer Book and ecclesiastical discipline, to the consideration of those, who have it in their power to promote a farther reformation. His questions are of considerable importance, and proposed with the greatest modesty, and deference to the judgment of his superiors.

33. *The Justice and Utility of Penal Laws for the Direction of Conscience, examined; in Reference to the Dissenters late Application to Parliament: addressed to a Member of the House of Commons.* 8vo. 2s. Dilly.

In the former part of this tract the author endeavours to shew, that penal laws for the direction of conscience, in the business of religion, are inconsistent with the personal rights of men, the nature of moral obligation, the common principles of so-

\* A circumstance, which seems to countenance this opinion, is a reference or two to the president's former publications.

ciety, the end and design of all just government, the intention of legal punishments, the nature and spirit of the Christian religion, and that subjection which we owe to God, and the dictates of our own reason and conscience.

In the latter part, he examines the use of those fines and penalties, to which Protestant nonconformists are still exposed in this kingdom; and then proceeds to answer all objections, which may be urged against that liberty of conscience, for which he is an advocate.

There is great acuteness and spirit in this pamphlet.

#### D I V I N I T Y.

34. *A Dissertation on the Distinct Powers of Reason and Revelation.* By the hon. and rev. Spencer Cowper, D. D. Dean of Durham. 8vo. 6d. Brown.

The author very justly observes, that reason takes the lead of revelation; for we have no way of judging of revelation but by reason. But he goes on and says, 'When once the certainty of a revelation's coming from God is *undeniably* established, the matter, which it contains, however *new*, however *wonderful*, is no point of its consideration.'—This principle would lead us into a thousand absurdities. For admitting that revelation comes from God, we must employ our reason more particularly in considering and examining its contents; otherwise we shall never know what is there revealed: we shall be apt to adopt groundless and visionary notions, instead of the real and genuine doctrines of revelation. Reason therefore should be as much employed in explaining scripture, as in establishing its divine authority.

Agreeably to the foregoing principle, our author says, 'The scriptures, in the distinct offices assigned of Redeemer and Sanctifier, point out a distinction of persons from the Supreme God; so that each must be a *distinct intelligence*. This, he adds, is the mystery of the Holy Trinity; a mystery not to be explained: not the subject of a finite understanding; but only to be confessed as a divine truth, with that humility and confidence, which all truths, coming from the God of Truth, command from his creatures.'

A Roman Catholic may say just the same thing of transubstantiation: 'It is a mystery, and not to be explained.' The business of reason is to search the scriptures, and enquire *whether these things are so*, or only founded on mistake. Dr. Cowper seems to have been one of those writers, who have laid it down as a maxim in Christianity, that we should captivate our understanding to the obedience of faith.

35. *Institutes of Natural and Revealed Religion. Vol. III. Containing a View of the Doctrines of Revelation.* By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson.

In this volume the author treats of the doctrines of revelation concerning the attributes of God, the various duties required of man,



man, the positive institutions of Judaism and Christianity, the government of Christian churches, the future expectations of mankind; and, in an appendix, of other intelligent beings besides man, and of abstinence from blood.

In speaking of the punishments of the wicked in a future state, he says, the expressions of scripture are general, and leave us to expect some very terrible, but unknown suffering, and of very long, but uncertain duration. He is of opinion, that the doctrine of an intermediate state has no foundation in scripture; and therefore he embraces the sentiments of the learned author of a celebrated treatise *On the State of the Dead*.

That the Jews shall return to their own country, about the time of the commencement of the Millenium; that they shall possess it many years in peace, and be a very flourishing nation, seems, he thinks, to be most distinctly foretold in many prophecies of the Old Testament.—Perhaps it is not so distinctly foretold, as this writer apprehends.

He looks upon the common notion concerning the fall of angels as incredible; and the use of Satan and *δαιμόλιος* in the language of scripture, as a mere personification. In the question relative to the lawfulness of eating blood, he states the arguments on both sides; but seems to think, that the prohibition given to Noah was obligatory on all his posterity.

These are points, on which rational and learned men may be allowed to entertain different opinions, without any reflection on their character.

36. *A Sermon preached at the Opening of the Chapel in Essex-House, Essex-Street, in the Strand, on Sunday, April 17, 1774. By Theophilus Lindsey, M. A. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.*

Mr. Lindsey's text is this passage in Eph. iv. 3. *Endeavouring to keep the unity of the Spirit in the bond of peace.* In discoursing on these words he shews, that *the unity of the spirit* is the kind affection, good order, and attention to mutual edification, which ought to subsist among those who profess the doctrine of Christ; that to compel men to an outward religious profession, when there is no inward approbation and willingness, is to violate the most sacred rites of conscience, and to break that bond of peace, by which alone rational beings, of capacities and attainments infinitely diversified, and independent of one another in religious matters, can live in unity together; that articles of faith, calculated to restrain all future generations of men, and societies of Christians, from a free and impartial enquiry into the meaning of scripture, are tyrannical impositions; that uniformity of opinion in speculative points of religion is not to be expected; that, while a friendly, benevolent temper is cherished and maintained, the different sects of Christians, far from being a hurt or discredit to religion, are of singular service, by exciting a spirit of inquiry into the grounds of their common faith and their dissent from one another.

These and other similar principles are calmly and dispassionately inculcated and recommended in this discourse.

## P O E T R Y.

37. *Faringdon Hill. A Poem. In Two Books. 2s. 6d. Wilkie.*

Poetical descriptions of local scenes owe, in general, the greater part of their beauties to pleasing allusions, adventitious circumstances, and agreeable episodes. The author of this poem has chiefly trusted for embellishment to the natural richness of his subject, which he places in the most advantageous point of view. The prospect he delineates consists of a part of Oxfordshire, Gloucestershire, and Wiltshire. The versification is smooth and flowing, and, on the whole, we may admit that the motto which the author has chosen is not inapplicable :

*Fies nobilium tu quoque montium.*

38. *Retaliation : A Poem. By Dr. Goldsmith. Including Epitaphs on the most distinguished Wits of this Metropolis. A New Edition. With Explanatory Notes, Observations, &c. 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsly.*

This poem, we are told, was produced in consequence of the ingenious author being called on to retaliate for some raillery thrown out against him, at a club of beaux esprits to which he belonged. It begins with the following exordium :

‘ Of old, when Scarron his companions invited,  
Each guest brought his dish, and the feast was united :  
If our landlord supplies us with beef, and with fish,  
Let each guest bring himself, and he brings the best dish :  
Our Dean shall be venison, just fresh from the plains ;  
Our Burke shall be tongue, with a garnish of brains ;  
Our Will, shall be wild fowl, of excellent flavour,  
And Dick with his pepper, shall heighten their flavour :  
Our Cumberland’s sweet-bread, its place shall obtain,  
And Douglass’s pudding, substantial and plain :  
Our Garrick’s a sallad, for in him we see  
Oil, vinegar, sugar, and saltness agree :  
To make out the dinner, full certain I am,  
That Ridge is anchovy, and Reynolds is lamb ;  
That Hickey’s a capon, and, by the same rule,  
Magnanimous Goldsmith, a gooseberry fool :  
At a dinner so various, at such a repast,  
Who’d not be a glutton, and stick to the last :  
Here, waiter, more wine, let me sit while I’m able,  
Till all my companions sink under the table ;  
Then with chaos and blunders encircling my head,  
Let me ponder, and tell what I think of the dead.’

The members of the club are characterised in a poetical strain of panegyric or delicate satire, in which good humour, and a facetious turn of thought are equally conspicuous. However frivolous the occasion and nature of this jeu d’esprit may be, it is a production which will reflect no discredit on the genius of the author.

39. *Mirth,*



39. *Mirth, a Poem in Answer to Warton's Pleasures of Melancholy.*  
By a Gentleman of Cambridge. 4to. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

This poem, which is written in blank verse, is too serious to suit its title. That sort of measure in burlesque poems is, it is true, well adapted to mirthful subjects, but in serious style it is too majestic. The author, probably, will not join in opinion with us, but we appeal to our readers; and cannot be thought to take an unfair advantage, when we make an extract from his own performance in confirmation of our remark. Instead of the cheerful numbers in which many of our poets have caroled their jocund lays, hear those with which our author tries to divert us; for certainly he does intend to divert us, as it would be ridiculous to pretend that verses written in avowed opposition to gravity, and in praise of mirth and high glee, should tend to make us grave.

' Hail! fairest light! Thou too shall share my song.  
Child of Omnipotence! first-born, and best!  
Who, when first dawn'd this goodly frame of things,  
Obedient at the word divine, sprang forth;  
Emblazing mid' the vasty firmament,  
(Till then a gloomy undistinguish'd void)  
Thy empyrean day; O! Light all hail!  
Whether, or mantled in dark clouds obscure,  
Thou yet dost gracious shed a softer day,  
Or gorgeous flaming up the cope of heav'n,  
Thou whirl'st thy beamy car, with spokes of fire,  
Streaming, like meteors, thro' the buxom air;  
Welcome thy genial splendor; ever hail!  
Tir'd with the dark dull night, and death-like sleep,  
How oft, uprising with the earliest morn,  
(Thy ruddy child with locks of dewy hair,  
And whom the vig'lant cock due-crowing wakes)  
I climb the steepy cliff, and anxious court  
Thy lov'd approach; or when the matron Eve,  
All veiled in russet robe, walks forth; how oft  
I bid adieu thy gradual-sinking orb,  
With ray faint-streaming thro' the woods embrown'd,  
Or glittering on some steeple's spire. Nor yet  
More ardent and more sad the love-lorn youth  
Beholds, with tremulous gaze, his parting fair,  
(When seal'd the last fond kiss, as now away  
She turns her eye deep-darting love) than I,  
Intent to catch thy last soft-shooting beam.'

At the same time that we think our author's manner ill-suited to his subject, we allow that his poetry is not void of merit; he has, indeed, some feeble and some awkward expressions.

' Where Gothic piles, in sullen pomp do chill'—  
is of the number of the former; and amongst the latter may be ranked,

' Sparkling her eye, and *elevate* her mien'—  
Where *elevate* is used as a participle.

In spite of its blemishes, if this be, as it is pretended, a first essay, we shall probably find entertainment hereafter in others from the same hand.

40. *A Poem on the Times.* By Miss Fell, of Newcastle. 4to. 1s. Wilkie.

The subject of this poem may be said to be *O tempora! O Mores!* In point of sentiment, and smoothness of cadence, miss Fell deserves great encomiums; but we wish that she had been more attentive to her rhymes.

41. *Poems by a Youth.* 4to. 2s. Hoggins.

These poems contain the blemishes, without the merit, of the preceding production. The meditation in Westminster-Abbey is neither verse nor prose. We would advise this youth to meditate on any thing rather than poetry; as his genius seems not to lie in a talent for metrical composition.

42. *Love, Friendship, and Charity; a Poem.* Written by a Gentleman, for his Amusement. 4to. 1s. 6d. Shropshire.

This gentleman obligingly informs us, that he wrote this poem for his amusement, but what were his motives for publishing, we are at a loss to guess: if he had in view the amusement of his readers, being of the number, we thank him for his intention.

Perhaps Mr. J. T. [our author signs the Dedication to E. B. G. esq. with those initials,] may not be much disappointed at our finding his poem extremely dull, he seeming to distrust his poetical abilities, as appears by the following passage.

‘ If the critics should proclaim  
That my muse has lost her aim,  
To unbridle her I’m able,  
And put her once more in the stable.’

Truly we think the gentleman cannot do better than to shut her up in the stable, from which, as he hints, he took her out. Yet we cannot commend his prudence in taking a muse from such a place, where her education certainly was none of the politeſt. But plain and intelligible as his meaning is in this passage, we find he can, when he pleases, express himself in a more elevated style, and even soar so *sublimely* that our weak eyes are unable to trace him. This, indeed, happens only when an elevated subject bears him up. Hear what he says relative to his muse, when the high-soaring Phaeton occurs to his thoughts.

‘ Whether Melpomene or Clio,  
Or any other you or I know,  
If I do not guide her well,  
The fate which Phaeton befell  
Must harmonize my destin’d knell.’

*Harmonize my destin’d knell!* There, reader, is elevation and sentiment.—But he proceeds.

‘ The gallant Phaet met this ill,  
For attempting to fulfill  
Difficulties past his skill.’

And



And yet with this example before his eyes, our author has attempted to write poetry: we heartily wish, for our sake as well as for his own, he had attended to that excellent precept of Horace,

Tu nihil invita dices faciesve Minerva.

43. *Poems.* 8vo. 2s. Snagg.

Mercy on us what a poet have we here! Dryden and Pope were mere children compared to him—such strength and sublimity of thought—such fire, and boldness of expression!—Pindar, Homer, all must yield the palm of merit to this truly great and *original* writer. —Our readers will, doubtless, assent to our opinion, when they have perused the following extracts from the poem on the Portsmouth Review.

‘ Now our great king, prepares his friends to meet,  
And hastes to head his mighty thund’ring fleet:  
E’er Sol’s bright rays had streak’d the Eastern skies,  
By glory fir’d, did this new sun arise;  
Attending lords see all prepar’d with care,  
Six fiery steeds are harness’d to the car;  
Proud of their load, their flaming eye-balls roll,  
Their driver’s strength can scarce their rage controul.  
Forth from his palace comes the stately king!  
(His praise, untir’d, I could for ever sing—)  
He mounts his chariot—in an instant flies  
The farewell shouts re-echo thro’ the skies;’

‘ The king descends, and views this awful scene  
With sapient brow, and countenance serene;  
Forward and aft along the deck he walks,  
Admires the sight, and with his nobles talks.’

‘ Again the king on board the *Barfleur* dines,  
Then in his yacht sails proudly thro’ the lines;  
He steers towards the fair St. Helen’s shore;  
The guns still keeping one incessant roar:  
At night to Portsmouth harbour bends his way,  
And landing rests ’till wakes another day.—  
Soon as Aurora gleams along the main  
Forth comes the king with all his smiling train,  
Th’ ord’nance views, the magazines explores,  
Inspects minutely all the warlike stores.’—

‘ Fierce from the ramparts of the noisy town  
A *feu de joye* comes rumbling, ratt’ling down,  
From guns and musquets flaming flashes pour,  
With dread explosive, banging, bellowing, roar.’

Bravo! Encore! Encore!—

Before we dismiss this *elegant* collection, we shall give a specimen of its author’s blank verse; it is taken from his description of winter.

———The howling wind  
Hurl’d from the bitter North, in rushing eddies  
Whirls aloft the air, and whistles round the dome,  
Portending sudden fall of dashing waters.’—

———All

‘ ——— All night  
The tempest rages horrible!—the tott’ring  
Tenement rocks on its base, fore-press’d by  
Gushing winds, and sheets of heavy fluid;  
The clatt’ring tiles, and chimneys headlong fall,  
And doors and shrieking windows bang about.’

‘ ——— Fences and banks  
Broke down, and cattle drown’d, float slowly  
O’er the delug’d plain, a waste of waters.’

‘ Now let the swain (whose youthful nerves, brac’d  
By the stringent air new strength acquires,) quit  
With disdain the warm abode; with joy elate  
To skim the slipp’ry pool, on skeit, firm fix’d,  
Rolling in oblique curves, amusive;  
And ruddy health will smile upon his cheek.’

44. *Theatrical Portraits, Epigrammatically delineated; wherein the Merit and Demerit of most of our Stage Heroes and Heroines are excellently painted by some of the best Masters. Inscribed to the Performers of both Theatres.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Bew.

When portraits are drawn with the view of displaying wit and humour, it may well be supposed that the painter is not very scrupulous in preserving the features of the original. This remark is frequently verified in the portraits before us. But if they are not always delineated with justice, they have, for the most part, an epigrammatic turn of thought to recommend them.

#### D R A M A T I C.

45. *The Parthian Exile, a Tragedy. As performed several Times at Coventry, &c. By G. Downing.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinson.

A number of sounding periods, couched in blank verse, is not the principal requisite in a tragedy; but it is the chief merit of the *Parthian Exile*. That fine glow of sentiment which animates the favourite heroes of tragedy, and that fascinating softness which endears its heroines, are here sought in vain. The thoughts are generally overstrained, the plot and catastrophe little interesting, and the style frequently turgid. What an awkward metaphor is the following:

‘ My love can now no longer keep due bounds,  
But overflows its banks, to bathe thy wrongs.’

If we remember right, we have seen a farce, written by Mr. Downing, which had much more merit than the present tragedy. Probably in the comic walk he might not be unsuccessful.

46. *The Inflexible Captive; a Tragedy. By Miss Hannah More.* 2d Edit. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

The subject of this piece is the behaviour of Regulus at his return from Carthage to Rome. As there are no intricacies in the plot, the tragedy is little more than the story of that hero’s sacrificing himself to the interest of his country, thrown into dialogue. The language seldom falls below the dignity of  
the



the subject, and the rigid virtue of Regulus (that virtue which seems to have bordered on frenzy) is so well portrayed as to command our admiration, however extravagant it appears. Yet this admiration is far less grateful than the compassion which we feel for those who seem sensible of the misery they endure. The stoical resolution which makes men despise and disregard their misery, strikes us indeed with astonishment, but is not sufficiently natural to excite our pity.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

47. *A new and easy Method of finding the Longitude at Sea, with like Accuracy that the Latitude is found. Adapted to general Use.* By T. Kean. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Nourse.

The various methods proposed for finding the longitude at sea, have hitherto proved ineffectual; even those which seemed to promise well by being perfectly true in theory, were nevertheless, when applied to practice, generally found to be defective. Dr. Halley proposed to find the longitude by the variation chart, and it was certainly a very ingenious device; but this scheme became imperfect when the variation lines run either due east or west, or nearly so. Others again have attempted the same thing by the variation of the sun's declination; but here a very small error in the computed declination will make a considerable difference in the required longitude; so that this method is not to be depended upon. The moon's culminating, suggested by some as a means for determining the longitude, cannot be used with safety; for in this method also, a small defect in the time of the moon's culminating, will produce a great error in the difference of longitude. We might proceed to enumerate many other schemes for finding the longitude at sea, such as the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, the eclipses of the moon, occultation of the fixed stars by the moon, &c. but even these methods have not always been attended with desired success. The performance now before us (Mr. Kean's plan) is a new method, and appears to be rational, useful, and easy, as it may be understood and put in practice by every mariner who is capable of taking an observation, and working the rule of three by logarithms. We are therefore of opinion, that the production of this ingenious author, should it not claim a parliamentary reward, will prove of the greatest service to sea-faring men in general.

48. *The British Mariner's Assistant: containing Forty Tables adapted to the several Purposes of Trigonometry and Navigation. To which are prefixed, an Essay on Logarithms, and Navigation Epitomized, &c.* By Benjamin Donn. 8vo. 6s. Law.

In this volume Mr. Donn has given most of the tables now used in navigation, disposed in a very neat, compact, and orderly manner.

manner, having contrived them so as to possess as little room as they will admit of.

These tables are mostly selected from various other books, with some few improvements and some new ones; the chief of which are these, viz. the traverse table is enlarged; a new table is given for finding the latitude by the north-star; a table for finding the time of high-water on new principles; and tables of the new, full, and quarter moons for several years to come: the last of these, however, which contains the lunations as calculated to hours, we cannot commend as accurate, the times being generally wrong upwards of half an hour, by which means they are not given to the nearest hour, and sometimes, indeed, we found the error to be several hours; however, they will answer the common purposes of navigation.

The author has prefixed to these tables, A short Essay on Logarithmical Arithmetic. A Compendium of Plane Trigonometry, in one page. A Compendium of Spherical Trigonometry, in two pages. Navigation Epitomized; containing a few of the chief theorems. A short Description of the Tables, with some Uses of many of them. Also a Short Compendium of Astronomy, &c.

Although we think the work before us a very useful set of tables for nautical purposes, and that our author appears to have merit in the contriving and adapting of such things; yet he is deficient in the arrangement of his subject, nor are his definitions always proper.

49. *A New Introduction to the Knowledge and Use of Maps; rendered easy and familiar to any Capacity. To which is added, an Appendix, containing Remarks on Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks's Voyage to the Southern Hemisphere. And also some late Discoveries near the North Pole; with Observations Astronomical, Philosophical, and Geographical.* 12mo. £s. Crowder.

Some time ago we recommended a former edition of this work to those who were desirous of obtaining a competent degree of knowledge in geography and the use of maps, without the help of a teacher. In this new edition, which is the third, there are added several very curious and useful improvements, together with an Appendix, containing an extract of a voyage towards the south pole, made by commodore Byron, captain Cook, and others. This entertaining account concludes with the following description of the harvest moon, as it appears near the north pole. 'This full moon may be seen near their horizon, continually to shine for more than two whole days and nights together; the sun at this time will just peep above the horizon, and there continue shining for more than two whole days and nights successively; after which he withdraws himself, and takes a long farewell for six months, never appearing in those regions during that time, which occasions so great a darkness



ness that the stars are seen spangling the canopy of heaven at their noon day.'

50. *An Essay on the Clergy; their Studies, Recreations, Decline of Influence, &c. &c.* By the rev. W. J. Temple, LL.B. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

The author mentions some of the benefits derived to mankind from revelation, shews the utility of the clerical character, proposes a plan of study to the younger clergy, and points out the views with which they ought to engage in their sacred function. He considers the style and manner in which the clergy should address their congregations in the pulpit, the causes which have contributed to lessen the influence of religion and its ministers, and the external appearance and recreations becoming the character of a clergyman. He gives some reasons why it seems the duty of the instructors of the people to interest themselves in the public welfare; and, lastly, endeavours to evince the propriety and necessity of a subscription to articles of faith.

In the course of this Essay the learned and worthy author has suggested many useful and important observations; but he seems to have dispatched some of his subjects without precision, or any depth of investigation.

51. *The Friend; or, Essays Instructive and Entertaining for Youth of both Sexes; on the most important Subjects; exemplified with Stories from real Life.* 12mo. 2s. sewed. Snagg.

This publication consists of twenty-eight short essays; the subjects of which are, Friendship, Benevolence, Choice of Company, Reputation, Self-knowledge, Humanity, Gaming, the Importance of Time, &c. We have seen many of these pieces before. The first is copied from a little tract on Friendship, by the Marchioness de Lambert. Perhaps the whole is a collection from the works of preceding writers. In point of morality it is unexceptionable.

52. *A Plain and Complete Grammar of the Hebrew Language, with and without Points.* By Anselm Bayly, LL.D. 8vo. 2s. Ridley.

Almost every different grammarian proposes different modes of pronouncing the Hebrew letters. We own ourselves partial to that of the late Dr. Gregory Sharpe, as it is extremely easy, and supported by the analogy of alphabets.

Dr. Bayly, in two or three instances, makes the Hebrew more guttural and rough. For example; he pronounces *y* [o] like *gn*, and *q* like *gb*. 'The sound of the latter, he says, is natural to a lion, or any wild beast, when he breathes forth his indignation and wrath at being disturbed.' As it is impossible to determine, how this letter was pronounced by the ancient Jews, we rather choose to follow those grammarians, who pronounce

nounce it like *h* or *bc*, than imitate the growling of a lion, or the braying of an ass.

With regard to the Masoretic points, the author says, 'we ought not to be *unthankful* for their *help*, or despise them.' Yet in the same page he tells us, they '*add*, or rather *create* the *difficulties* and labour of learning Hebrew.' We will, therefore, venture to affirm, that there is no 'ingratitude' in rejecting them.

It is remarkable, that there are no traces of the Masoretic vowels in the Greek alphabet; though that alphabet is evidently taken from the Samaritan or the Hebrew. This is a strong presumptive evidence, that the points are a modern invention.—In reality they are an incumbrance upon the language, for which we have reason to be thankful.

Dr. Bayly informs us, with respect to his grammatical rules and observations, that 'he has collected what he could from every preceding master.' On this account his performance cannot fail of being very serviceable to young students, in learning the first principles of the Hebrew tongue.

53. *The Grammarian's Vade-Mecum, or Pocket Companion; containing the general Terms of Grammar in the French and English Languages, disposed in Alphabetical Order. Designed as an Assistance to the Memory of young Beginners.* 12mo. 1s. Brown.

This little manual may be (as the title-page promises) an assistance to the memory of young beginners.

54. *A Tour to Spa, through the Austrian Netherlands.* 12mo. 2s. Richardson and Urquhart.

55. *Excursion into Normandy and Brittany.* 12mo. 2s. Richardson and Urquhart.

We do not remember to have seen more trifling journals than these, which are evidently by the same author, and probably the same tour split into two journals.—For instance,

'CHOUSY. A good house on the right, that commands a pleasing view up and down the river. From hence you see the town and steeple at

BLOIS. Fine view from the new ramparts; from whence you see the town, bridge, Loire, and Chambord, in a wood, a very gay little church, white and grey.

ST. HENRY's. Some pictures.'

Who would suppose a man could be led to print such pages of inanity—The two tours contain very little more than information of this nature.—Nothing of arts, manufactures, commerce, or agriculture, for which some books of travels are valuable; no judicious and meaning criticisms on works in the fine arts; no information of prices, travelling, manners, or customs, which are useful in others; in a word, here is nothing you can want, but every thing that you would not desire.

